

Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

VOLUME 21

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DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

National Education Association

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THE CHALLENGE OF A NEW SCHOOL

J. F. WELLEMEYER

Principal, Wyandotte High School
Kansas City, Kansas

The Wyandotte High School of Kansas City, Kansas, has been in existence for over fifty years. During these years, this high school has run the whole gamut of secondary-school development in the most important period of American educational history. Beginning as the first free secondary school of the community with an enrollment of thirty pupils in 1886, its roll to-day carries about three thousand. Its first graduating class was in 1887 and consisted of 11 girls; the 1936 graduating class totaled 597 pupils. The first curriculum with five fixed courses, English, Latin, scientific, normal, and commercial, had little in common with the rather elaborate yet flexible program that developed in later years. Fifty years ago all learning was from a small number of textbooks. There were no laboratories, shops, library, or extra-curriculum program.

Withal this particular high school seems to have participated in many significant progressive movements which appeared in American secondary education during this time; handicapped always by enrollment increases too rapid to be absorbed conveniently. Practices have been accepted and rejected but the spirit of experimentation has always been present. The institution has never been without the services of a rather outstanding faculty and has never been indifferent to the significance of better study techniques or the importance of providing better facilities. Like hundreds of other American high schools it was always handicapped by over-enrollments, traditions, old equipment adapted to new ideas, and a

naturally conservative community. Progress in later years was slow because the best energies of the school heads were exhausted in routine adjustments to make the physical plant adequate to mere housing needs. Destruction of the building in 1934 by fire was a boon, although it increased temporarily the list of handicaps.

In one week following the fire our adjustment to temporary quarters was made and the pupils returned to school. In about two months a complete financial program was worked out by the board of education and the resulting bond issue was approved by an overwhelming vote of the people. The selection of an architect was not easy because our administrators were determined to engage as architects only men who had successfully planned the construction of *school buildings* and were sympathetic with actual school situations. The architect secured and engaged, however, we were hardly prepared when he rather bluntly enquired what sort of building we expected him to plan. In effect his question could be phrased about as follows: "Gentlemen, what kind of institution is the new Wyandotte High School to be?"

I think you will agree with me that such a question would present a challenge to any school man. Ordinarily we move along, making conservative advances here and there, content to make appreciable progress and coöperating with various community influences and tendencies. In the face of such an emergency, however, how would you answer the challenge? It is the purpose of this article to set forth briefly our thinking and planning in view of the problem presented to us in the challenge of a new school.

Two things, only, were determined. A number of years before a beautiful twenty-eight acre site had been purchased by the board, and appropriately dedicated as a new high-school site, if and when we might be ready to build. Thus a question which divides many other communities, was pretty definitely accepted by ours. A second and most important item was that of total cost which was announced almost arbitrarily by our board at \$2,000,000. The actual cost, including site and equipment, was \$2,500,000; \$557,000.00 was supplied by a Federal grant.

Other aspects of the problem to be studied and determined before our architects were to be satisfied may be grouped under four heads: physical, equipment, functional, and curricu-

lum. Within the limits of this study, we shall discuss briefly selected items under each heading.

In considering the physical aspect of the whole situation quite naturally the most important question would be the size and pupil capacity of the building and various departments.

The number of rooms required in each department as well as total pupil capacity were determined by enrollment statistics extending over a period of ten years preceding. The building was designed to accommodate a working enrollment of 3,000 pupils, with 2,750 expected the first year. In science we provided eleven laboratories. Ten of these are assigned with eight in use full time. Forty-three academic classrooms are ample for some years to come. Shops were provided for wood-working, general metal, printing, electricity, auto mechanics, and mechanical drawing. Regularly scheduled to be used six periods daily, all shops are filled except two periods in metal shop and three in one of the two mechanical drawing rooms.

The space for home-living courses provided two cooking laboratories and two sewing rooms. Two additional rooms were assigned this department for general classroom purposes. Vocal and instrumental music must be so placed that they do not disturb other departments. This was accomplished by locating them on a top floor near the gymnasium wing. With art and mechanical drawing a northeast light was provided and the speech and dramatic quarters were located near the two auditoriums. Journalism is placed with the English department, but it is provided with a city telephone and has easy access to the print shop.

The library caused us some concern. Usually one plans a library to seat one-tenth of the enrollment. However, because of the three fine study halls not far removed and a conference room available, we compromised with a seating capacity of one hundred ninety in the main library. Parenthetically, one sees so many school library rooms ruined by an attempt to use some multiple of the standard classroom. These are invariably too narrow and present an overcrowded appearance. The library should always be centrally located and specially designed; not provided as an afterthought.

The size of the auditorium was a problem. In a large high school it is practically impossible to accommodate the entire student body at one time without making the room too large for fine programs and dramatic performances. Our auditorium seats eighteen hundred; the acoustics are so perfect

that no amplification of sound is ever necessary and the appointments are very artistic and beautiful. We reluctantly, but of necessity, gave up the idea of assembling the entire school. The auditorium is in a separate wing and has an outside entrance with facilities for cutting off the remainder of the building. A beautiful recital hall seating two hundred fifty persons and with a fully equipped stage accommodates smaller meetings.

For physical education we have provided separate gymnasiums for girls and for boys with their respective dressing and shower rooms, a swimming pool, a corrective room, and a health unit. Here again seating capacity for spectators reared its ugly head. Right or wrong, we plan to seat two thousand, with some extension possible, if it becomes imperative. The boys' gymnasium, where public spectators are to be admitted, also occupies a separate wing with separate street entrance.

The cafeteria occupies central location on the ground floor. There are two large dining rooms with a capacity of five hundred each, a separate entrance from outside and complete isolation from the school both as to location and sound. Our three study halls seat one hundred fifty each and are in direct corridor line opposite the library. The administrative offices are in the center of the building, with all offices grouped together. Our plan also included the complete landscaping of the twenty-eight-acre tract. All playground, recreation, and parking facilities are under unit control.

Very closely associated with the general physical aspect was that of equipment for the new building. In planning equipment certain matters of general policy are often involved. We believed that best results could be obtained by promoting classroom unity and independence in the installation of equipment. For this reason the laboratory storerooms were large, fully provided for with shelving, drawers, etc., and invariably opened from within the classroom. The departmental teachers were asked to submit drawings of the classroom equipment set-up, including storerooms, shelving, closets as well as furniture. Standard furniture is to be found only in the academic classrooms, and even here certain items like wall maps and charts are absolutely determined by the subject to be taught.

Teachers' desks are uniform throughout the building. After long consideration we decided against loose chairs and in favor of a pedestal desk fastened to the floor in practically

all academic rooms. This naturally called for maple flooring in these rooms. In the physics and chemistry room one finds an interesting example of an attempt to promote class unity. In each case the room is long with laboratory tables and store-room at one end and class recitation equipment and teacher's demonstration table at the other. All other laboratories have one-way tables and thus supply the dual purpose very well. In all special rooms where chairs are used these are uniform and are finished in walnut color which is uniform for all furniture of every kind. This holds true for the cafeteria, auditorium, and offices. The library has the tables and chairs specified by the American Library Association. It would be utterly impossible to describe completely the furniture and equipment. Nothing but new equipment was permitted to pass our receiving room even though some teachers wished to bring in favored items. Under our plan it seldom happens that responsibility for any item of equipment is shared by two or more teachers. Thus the individual teacher is held strictly accountable.

A far more important challenge comes to us when we attempted to face the functional aspect. During the building of our school some tried to describe the new equipment by calling it a *functional building*. The meaning back of this statement seemed to emphasize the use of pupils to be accommodated. Are we prepared in the new building to offer an appropriate education to the great masses now seeking admission? College preparation is to-day only a single item. Many other needs must be recognized, large group teaching techniques developed and curriculum offerings differentiated to meet the situation so suddenly thrust upon us. And the equipment must reflect our desire to do this. A decision was necessary as to the length and character of the school day. Our city is tired of the abbreviated school day. During the past three years that such a plan has been in operation other great social changes have taken place. Pupils of high-school age can't secure employment to-day as they could even ten years ago. This condition will be more or less permanent, since it is right in line with the whole social security program. Our parents applaud when we begin school at 8:15 A. M. and continue until 3:00 P. M., but how are we attempting to justify the added time given us? In answer, we are requiring of each pupil at least one hour of study under supervision. For this reason we have built in the three fine study halls and the well equipped commodious library. For this reason, as well, we have decided not to merely

offer a hurried snack for lunch at noon, but have equipped our dining halls with heavy tables and solid comfortable chairs. Each pupil is allowed thirty minutes for lunch, is asked to take a nice tray, and select a good though very reasonable meal and take his time to eat it. Those who bring their lunches from home must eat in the dining room with the others, but none may leave until the lunch period is over. No one leaves the building at noon unless on a special permit card, and these are issued only for an especially good reason. Thus the cafeteria functions very definitely in the educational program.

We also recognize as one duty the making of provision for improving the morals and unity of our student body. Assemblies, school publications, athletic events, music, dramatics, speech, intra-mural activities; all these and others must be especially provided for. We go further and recognize a definite obligation toward providing comfort and convenience. A private locker for each child; corridors, floored with noiseless linoleum block and ceiled with acoustic plaster; convenient, sanitary, and well-lighted toilet rooms; gymnasiums, auditoriums, and swimming pool open to the sunlight; a graduate nurse on the job always; these are a few of the comforts provided. Facilities for added social activity are found in the many meeting places for clubs, opportunities for holding banquets and parties under school sponsorship. Since guidance is a big word in our whole program, we provide a counseling room and teachers equipped for this task.

Our final challenge, however, was found in the insistent and imperative call for a complete revision of the curriculum. With that we are still earnestly engaged. Last November, almost exactly a year ago, our intensive study started. Our best progress seems to come from departmental conferences and we hold many. Committed for years to the plan of classification of pupils on the basis of ability, we recognize distinct limitations here. In addition, we must consider interests, desires and goals (vocational or other), characteristics, special abilities, and skills other than intellectual. We recognize a very distinct relation between our curriculum and the demands of democracy.

Our school is large. It offers an unusual opportunity for differentiation. We no longer call chemistry merely chemistry, but group the pupils in three divisions A, B, and C. The same holds true for physics, history, and other courses. We call in an occasional curriculum expert, but always recognize that

the obligation is ours. On the basis of our study we published our findings in a booklet addressed to parents and students. In this little book we announced five guiding principles as follows:

1. We believe in an appropriate and reasonable high-school education for all and urge upon parents and pupils alike the strict necessity of high-school graduation as a minimum.
2. We believe in a differentiated curriculum designed to meet the actual needs of every class of students in our community.
3. Vocational training in its fundamental aspects must continue to be a strong element in the new curriculum.
4. We believe that a high-school education should function in the daily lives of the boys and girls both within and without the school.
5. We are confident that certain organized bodies of knowledge commonly known as subject matter should be regarded as the natural heritage of modern boys and girls, and that there is definite value in the acquisition of such knowledge. In such courses we shall ever endeavor to insist upon accurate acquisition and a high degree of mastery.

You will not all agree with me in the guiding principles set forth here. Many of us are not in complete accord with certain *issues* and *functions* of secondary education as discussed in this BULLETIN during the past two years. What we have included here, in answer to the challenge of the new school, we have included for cause. What we have omitted was done with definite reason. All must function in an educational program to accomplish definite educational objectives.

RECENT TRENDS IN SECONDARY-SCHOOL ENGLISH

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The rapid democratization of the American high school in recent years and the findings of educational research have caused significant changes in the English curriculum.

English as a high-school subject is difficult to define. Usually it includes all phases of instruction in the four fundamental language arts: speaking, writing, reading, and listening. Our discussion may be simplified somewhat by grouping these branches into the two traditional divisions, composition and literature. We shall deal first with composition, both oral and written.

In the main, language ability is acquired spontaneously in the process of group living. But without conscious training it seldom reaches a level of effectiveness which is adequate for the activities of intelligent citizenship. For this reason the school undertakes, as one aspect of its program of preparation for effective citizenship, the improvement of the language instrument beyond the level which is demanded by most social groups.

Since language is an aspect of most experiences, training in its use becomes the problem of the whole school rather than of a single department or group of teachers. All teachers must be concerned with instruction in composition whenever language is a part of the learning or wherever experiences are verbalized. Whenever the need for language instruction goes beyond what can be accomplished by incidental instruction, the obligation to provide systematic and organized training rests with the teachers of English. In coöperation with other teachers they anticipate the language needs of their pupils, correct deficiencies observed and reported, and through group instruction and individual guidance provide for continuous growth in the power to use language effectively. The special responsibility of teachers of English is to provide instruction in the technical aspects of expression and to supervise, both directly and indirectly, the pupil's language activities in all situations. Recognition of the principle that English is essentially not a separate subject but a responsibility of the whole

school is perhaps the most significant trend in secondary-school English.

In as much as language has no content of its own, the school provides for training in composition in connection with the numerous opportunities for purposeful expression which normal group life supplies. In his school and out-of-school life, the pupil engages in formal group discussion and informal conversation, presides over meetings, gives talks, writes letters, prepares outlines and organizations, and writes papers of various kinds. The function of the English curriculum is to train pupils to perform these activities well. The older courses of study in composition, organized as they were around narration, description, exposition, and argumentation, have given way to a curriculum organized around functional centers of expression, such as the following:

1. Ability to engage in informal conversation and group discussion.
2. Ability to prepare and deliver effectively talks suitable to various occasions.
3. Ability to listen profitably to formal presentation of materials.
4. Ability to conduct and report an interview.
5. Ability to follow parliamentary procedures in directing and participating in debate.
6. Ability to write papers of critical comment.
7. Ability to write letters of various kinds suitable in content and appropriate in form.
8. Ability to select materials according to a plan and to develop coherent discourse of considerable length adapted to various purposes.

The second major trend, then, is a shift from the college-preparatory type of English with its emphasis upon the literary or stylistic or artistic aspects of writing to the utilitarian use of language in everyday writing and speaking.

A third major trend, closely related to the first two, if not a corollary of them, is the integration of instruction in composition with content subjects, particularly the social studies. Language is the fundamental tool of thinking and of communicating and acquiring thought. Since language and thought are inseparably related, it follows that effective training in expression is best associated with subjects rich in content and in which language processes play a prominent and vital part. Such correlation recognizes the essentials in developing natural, free, and effective expression: awakening in the pupil the

realization that he has something to say and impressing upon him the fact that others are genuinely interested in what he has to say. In other words, a teacher may stimulate pupils to expressional activity by bringing them into contact with what concerns them and moves them and by providing them with a true audience situation. In harmony with the general trend in education to integrate all learning, the modern English curriculum associates instruction in composition with the content subjects.

In the field of literature, several important curriculum changes are taking place. Formerly, the curriculum was confined very largely to the study of a number of prescribed classics limited to English and American. Frequently six to ten weeks were spent in studying a single masterpiece. To this intensive reading and careful dissection of a few chosen classics was added the history of literature. Emphasis was placed not so much upon the content values of books as upon their literary merits and the biographies of their authors.

No longer is reading strictly confined to a few classics required of every pupil regardless of his interests and aptitudes. To-day, pupils read widely with considerable latitude in their choice of reading. It is not unusual in some schools for pupils to read twenty-five or even fifty books in a year. The courses in literature are organized with full cognizance of the special interests and aptitudes of pupils. This shift from intensive, analytical reading of a few prescribed classics, to extensive reading with emphasis upon content values is the most significant trend in the teaching of literature.

Closely related to the major trend already described is the tendency to broaden the scope of the courses in literature. Acceptable reading lists now include the whole range of reading suitable to the age and maturity of the pupil. The lists contain a much larger proportion of books of travel, biography, adventure, and general non-fiction. Many schools recognize, too, that literature of the modern world properly includes not only that which is of enduring worth, but also that which is, or may be, of temporary importance only. The latter is most accessible in the numerous periodicals of to-day. Consequently, an introduction to the better adult magazines is frequently included in the regular courses of study.

Emphasis upon extensive reading and upon the content values of books naturally results in a closer association of literature with other subjects. One illustration will suffice to

make clear how literature and history may be correlated. While the pupil is studying the Westward Movement as a unit in American history, his work in literature is organized around a unit entitled *Pioneer Life*. Much American literature recreates the romance of the covered wagon, the buffalo hunt, the pony express, and the discovery of gold. It portrays encounters with the Indians and the stern realities of the life of the early pioneer. The pupil's study of history is thus enriched and vitalized through reading appropriate portions of his heritage of American literature, and his appreciation of literature is enhanced by the direction and purpose given to his reading. It is not difficult to see that correlation has several features of excellence. The plan provides a vital substitute for the analytical method of dealing with literature piecemeal by stressing instead the reading of books as wholes. It furnishes, too, a functional approach by grouping the literature of various types according to theme or content values. This approach appears to be a more effective means of creating and stimulating in young people a genuine appreciation of their literary heritage.

The general tendency to broaden the scope of courses in literature is revealed in another trend particularly noticeable in the last three or four years, namely, offerings in world literature. There has been for several years a tendency to include in all courses literature from countries other than England and America, especially in courses organized by types or themes. Very recently, schools have begun to offer separate courses in world literature. In response to the demand, there have appeared recently several excellent high-school textbooks or anthologies of world literature. One of these includes modern literature in translation from the French, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, German, Danish, Norwegian, Swedish, and Russian and a rich collection of the classical literature of the Greeks and Romans and in the Oriental field from the Egyptian, Babylonian-Assyrian, Hebrew, Persian, Arabic, Indian, Chinese, and Japanese. Thus there is a wide difference between the course of study in the high school to-day and the circumscribed curriculum of a decade or more ago limited as it usually was to a few readings from the works of English and American writers.

Thus far we have considered trends in composition and literature. The modern English curriculum includes areas which were not found in the course of study a few years ago.

Among these newer areas the photoplay and the radio are the most significant. Whatever our attitude may be toward the motion picture as a medium of education and entertainment, the fact remains that millions of boys and girls of high-school age are spending a considerable amount of time at the movies. And as adults to-morrow they will continue to attend the motion picture theater. The school must accept responsibility for training young people to become intelligent and discriminating consumers of motion pictures just as it has assumed similar responsibilities in the fields of literature, music, and art.

Two phases of the problem confront the school. The first is the task of teaching motion-picture appreciation. Boys and girls need assistance in setting up standards by which to evaluate the pictures they see. Improvement in the quality of the motion picture will result from training millions of young people in the schools to be critical in their selection of motion pictures and in their reactions to them. Notable progress in this direction has been made in the last five years under the able direction of such men, among others, as Edgar Dale, Walter Barnes, William Lewin, and Max J. Herzberg. Mr. Dale's textbook for high-school pupils entitled *How to Appreciate Motion Pictures* is not only a pioneer work but a brilliant production. *The Photoplay as Literary Art*, by Walter Barnes, should be read by every teacher of English. The rapidly increasing attention which English departments throughout the country are giving to instruction in motion-picture appreciation indicates that the photoplay is finding a place in the English curriculum as one of the literary arts. So far we have been dealing with the photoplay as commercial entertainment. Many schools now employ motion pictures in the classroom for educational purposes. The use of the sound film in English classrooms will mark a significant trend in the next decade.

The radio is the second area of instruction which has received increasing attention in the last two or three years. Here, also, two phases of the problem may be differentiated. In the first place, there is need for instruction in how to select radio programs intelligently and how to listen to them most effectively. That boys and girls spend an enormous amount of time at the dial of the radio is known to us all. A study made recently in one city revealed that pupils of high-school age spent an average of more than two hours a day listening to radio broadcasts. In 1935 it was estimated that there were in the United States more than twenty-one million radio

homes. The modern school recognizes its obligation to train boys and girls in the wise use of this new medium of expression. In the second place, many schools are employing the radio in classroom instruction. Considerable progress in this direction has been made in the last year. Like the photoplay, the radio has a contribution to make to the teaching of English. Its timeliness, its authenticity, its enrichment of emotional life, and its artistry of expression make the radio a unique instrument of communication.

Our examination of the English curriculum reveals the six major trends: (1) composition is no longer looked upon as a separate subject with its own content but rather a discipline or tool training in which is a school-wide responsibility (2) there has been a shift from the former emphasis upon the literary and artistic aspects of writing to the utilitarian use of language in the normal expressional situations of everyday life; (3) instruction in composition and literature is now closely integrated with the content subjects; (4) extensive reading from the whole range of good books with emphasis upon content values is rapidly replacing the intensive and analytical study of a few prescribed classics; (5) the scope of acceptable reading in literature courses has been greatly broadened and extended; and (6) new areas have been added to the field of English instruction, notably the photoplay and the radio.

SEND NEWS NOTES TO BULLETIN

The Bulletin is interested in receiving from the offices of principals and others connected with secondary schools accounts of outstanding activities and accomplishments in the field. News items about significant developments in secondary schools such as curriculum revisions and reorganizations, group studies, experiments, new courses, unique activities, problems and methods of solution, are appropriate for this section. Many individual schools are making important contributions to the field of secondary education. If your school is one of these, you can secure the educational recognition which it deserves for such work by sending an account of the contributions of importance to W. C. Reavis, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago.

AN INTRAMURAL BASKETBALL PROGRAM •FOR BOYS IN THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL¹

HAL HALL

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Carbondale, Illinois

School men have long recognized the more direct values that come from an interscholastic athletic program. It has been evident that a sanely administered program will result in (1) desirable physical development as a result of acquiring the necessary game skills, and (2) that the participant will absorb a number of associated learnings, closely connected with the activity, which enables the player to improve his game. Correct habits of sleep, rest, relaxation, and hygiene are examples of such associated learnings. A third set of learnings perhaps of greater importance than the first two, are the concomitant learnings. These refer to the desirable attitudes and ideals that may develop—concepts of sportsmanship, coöperation with team mates, good fellowship, and wholesome attitudes toward play.

A fourth group of values that are coming to be recognized more and more are those that result from student participation in the control and management of the athletic program. These afford excellent training in leadership, in exercising initiative, and in practice in democratic living. If it is agreed that these important results accrue to those who take part in interscholastic sports, how many times might these values be multiplied if sports were actually democratized through an intramural program.

The purpose of this article is to describe a plan whereby the largest possible number of students may be benefitted through democratic participation in and control of the games.

As in all extra-curriculum activities, the selection of a faculty sponsor is a vital consideration. If at all possible, the faculty sponsor should not be the coach, as his main interest is very naturally the interscholastic teams and he may look upon the intramural program as a feeder for his teams. If the school employs a director of physical education, this teacher

¹This plan may be very easily adapted to an intramural basketball program for the girls.

should have general supervision and should appoint the sponsor.

Since one of the main objectives of the program is to give those who take part practice in living in a democratic situation, it is clear then that it is desirable to have as large a group as possible take part in the games and in their management. This can best be effected through an intramural club or sportsman's club to which all players and officials belong. This club should elect officers and appoint committees to attend to all necessary details. Committees should be appointed to look after publicity, awards, equipment, and sportsmanship. From this group should come the manager of intramural basketball, his assistant, and the student officials.

One of the very important tasks of the intramural club is the training of the officials and the imbuing of the players with the proper attitude toward them. Basketball is one game in which the rules are familiar to many and poor officiating may rob the whole program of its effectiveness. The students who volunteer or who are selected by the club for this task should be given rule books. They should be required to know the rules thoroughly and to read Chapter I of Forrest Allen's *My Basketball Bible* and Stanley S. Feezle's "Basketball Officiating" in the *Athletic Journal*, January, 1929.

The players should be requested to read Chapter VI of Allen's book and Hammett and Lundgren's book on *How to Become an Athlete*. These references discuss ethics for the player and the necessary training rules. The sportsmanship committee should be called upon to prepare several programs for the club on the subject of sportsmanship from the standpoint of player and spectator.¹

Very little equipment is needed—basketballs may be borrowed from the athletic department—but it is recommended that the timer's and scorer's implements be purchased especially for the intramural department. A very durable and reliable stop watch can be bought for \$2.50 from companies which deal in athletic goods.

It is better practice for the boys to furnish their own playing outfits as constant swapping of equipment may lead to the spread of skin diseases. (A satisfactory gym outfit can be purchased for less than \$1.) One scheme is to have the dif-

¹R. E. Lindwall, *Intramural Activities* (1933), the appendix of this book contains some valuable information concerning ways to develop sportsmanship.

ferent teams to choose a color and then have the home economics department dye their playing shirts the prescribed hue.

Eligibility rules should be conspicuous by their absence as the purpose of the program is to benefit as many students as possible. This is also a fine opportunity to burn up some of the surplus energy of the school's trouble makers. Those whose health will not permit and who are playing interscholastic ball should, however, be excluded.

The division of the boys into teams will depend upon the number who turn out. If enough turn out to form two leagues with three or four teams to a league, then the boys may be separated into two groups by means of physical ability tests. One simple index number that can be used is computed by multiplying the boy's age by four and to this figure add one-half his height in inches and one-half his weight in pounds. (For nine other physical ability tests see footnote.)¹

If there are only enough players to form one league, the following plan works well. Enough captains should be elected by the group to choose the boys into teams with six to seven players on a side. The captains decide the order of selection by lot. Let us say, that there are five captains A, B, C, D, E, and they have won the right to choose team mates in that order. The first round will go A, B, C, D, E, but the second round goes E, D, C, B, A. In the third round the captains pick team mates in this order: A, B, C, D, E. This continues until all the players are chosen.

In a small school where all the boys know each other, this plan matches the teams very evenly. The writer has used this scheme for several years, and it always provides an exciting championship race full of upsets, one-point, and over-time games.

When the captains have their team mates, the next step is the selection of team names. The name chosen by the boys must be one that will have no questionable connotations. If the boys are left to their own resources, they sometimes pick a name that the school might not like to see in print. Last year, the writer looked up the names of twenty-five Indian tribes and suggested that the boys select their names from the list. So enthusiastic were they that this year the list will be extended to include such categories as snakes, fish, wild animals of various regions, mascots or nicknames adopted by leading colleges and universities.

¹R. E. Lindwall, *Op. Cit.*, P. 31.

The schedule of play should be a round robin affair in which each team plays every other team one or more times. This prevents elimination of any team and keeps the whole group playing until the league play ends.

The time of day the games are to be played is a most important consideration. Suggestions offered by various writers are: divide time with the varsity, have varsity practice after intramurals, Saturday games, have varsity turn out in the evening, use gymnasium in the fall and possibly in the spring after school, have games in the morning before school, use the physical education period several times a week, and have noon hour intramurals.

If possible, the most desirable time to have the games will be within the regular school day. Before or after school or on Saturdays may be times when the boys are expected to work at home. If the main consideration is, as it should be, the reaching of the largest number, then the noon hour would seem the logical time.

The big objection to using the noon hour, of course, is that this period should be used for eating lunch and relaxation. Most youngsters gulp their lunch and dash out to play anyway; or if they go home for lunch, the procedure is many times the same. It would be harmful, however, for the boys to eat their lunch and play immediately afterwards, but this difficulty can be neatly side-stepped by allowing them a twenty-minute lunch period near the middle of the morning—10:00 or 10:30. This plan works out particularly well in rural communities where a large number of boys bring their lunch anyway. It might also work equally well in urban communities if the members of the intramural club were sufficiently convinced of the desirability of playing at noon. By shifting the activity period to the fourth or fifth hour, several games can be played in this extended noonday period.

This plan prevents any conflict between the intramural program and the varsity. The boys are not deprived of playing because of having to work before and after school and the scheme provides for wholesome activity during the noon hour.

In some schools, all students are encouraged to come to the gymnasium after lunch to watch the games. This may develop a few cases of *spectatoritis* perhaps, but they will be of the more harmless varieties and are in no wise as harmful as the type that results from regularly watching many of the

activities that occur down town during the noon hour. Besides, many who are watching the games to-day will be playing too in a day or so. In some school where the buildings are near the business district, this device has been used successfully to divert the students' interest from the less desirable pool room, *jelly-temple* environment.

A NEW EMPHASIS IN SAFETY EDUCATION

Greatly increased interest and activity in the field of safety education, particularly in instruction in safe automobile driving, have been noted recently throughout the country as the school is forced to assume much of the responsibility for reducing the tremendous annual toll of accidents on street and highway.

Courses of study in safety, with special emphasis on careful conduct on street and highway, especially while driving, have been reported in six states: Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, New Hampshire, North Dakota, and Pennsylvania, while other states are planning such courses. During the past year instruction in driving for teachers, who later would give this training in their colleges and high schools, was offered in twelve colleges and four Indian Service Schools.

All are following a program developed by educators co-operating with the American Automobile Association and are assisted by Professor Amos E. Neyhart, who is directing the Association's driver-training activities. According to a recent survey by the A. A. A., 3,500 high schools now offer driver education, and about 500,000 students were reached during the last school year.

THREE MAJOR FACTORS IN THE AMERICAN YOUTH PROBLEM

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To those who are studying the problems of secondary education it is clear that numerous changes in American life, some of which have been piling up over a long period of time and some of which are of more recent origin, are by their cumulative effort producing a crisis in secondary education. It was in recognition of this crisis that the American Council on Education more than two years ago created the American Youth Commission and instructed it to study all of the needs of American youth between the ages of twelve and twenty-five and to prepare a comprehensive program for their care and education. The Commission has spent two of the five years which were allotted to it in laying as comprehensive a factual foundation as possible for its thinking. As a part of its work it has completed the *Inventory of Oncoming Youth in Pennsylvania*, which had been begun earlier by the Department of Public Instruction, in which comprehensive data were secured on approximately thirty thousand youths in the State of Pennsylvania over a period of eight years, from 1926 to 1934. In addition, it has interviewed directly approximately twenty-thousand other youth between the ages of sixteen and twenty-four in the State of Maryland, in Dallas, Texas, and in Muncie, Indiana. Furthermore, it has made an analysis of data from some two-hundred other surveys of youth that have been made in the last three or four years.

This body of data has given us a broad view of the needs and problems of American adolescent youth. I have chosen three of these major issues and to present them to you with some of the implications which they raise.

1. Undoubtedly one of the most fundamental issues in the field of secondary education to-day has to do with the implications growing out of our system of universal secondary education for all youth. There is no principle of American education that is more deeply imbedded in our educational philosophy than that of universal secondary education, and coupled with it the principle of equality of educational opportunities. We committed ourselves to these principles historically, but up until the present time they have never been put to a practical test for the simple reason that all of our youth of secondary-school age have never before sought to avail themselves of these opportunities. We are

rapidly approaching the time when practically all youth of secondary-school age are going to be asking for secondary education at public expense.

This simple fact, therefore, is producing one of the most fundamental issues that we have ever confronted in secondary education. The issue may be stated in this way: *Are we going to face frankly the implications of our system of universal secondary education and prepare programs adapted to the needs, interests, and capacities of all youth of secondary-school age?*

I shall short circuit a great deal of argument by asserting that society is faced with the obligation of providing a secondary education for practically all of its youth of secondary-school age whether it wills it or not. It is perfectly clear that the employment situation in American life does not now demand, and will not in the immediate future demand, the services of youth under eighteen years of age, and that only a small percentage of youth under twenty-one years of age will really find worth-while opportunities in employment. Society is faced, therefore, with the very practical problem of how to provide adequately for its youth under twenty-one years of age. Our schools must find a type of educational program that is fitted to the needs of its youth.

There is another aspect of our present situation that is highly significant. In the past we have thought of the common school as being confined to the elementary grades. We are rapidly approaching the time when we must think of a common education for practically all youth under twenty or twenty-one years of age. This is a wholly new concept of secondary education. The development of a program of education adequate to the implications of this concept is going to tax the finest educational statesmanship we possess. Certainly our present schools are not adapted to this situation.

I cannot leave this subject without giving you some idea as to my concept of what the nature of this new program should be. A proper concept of secondary education for the future seems to be that of a common education for our common life. By the development of means of travel and communication all people have been drawn close together and means for the dissemination of knowledge and information are making it possible for all people to hear and to know the same things. Habits, customs, manners, and ways of thinking are fast becoming common to all groups and sections of our country. People in all classes in all sections of the country hear the same radio programs, read the same books from public libraries, see and ride in the same kind of automobiles, see the same moving pictures, play the same sports, and share hundreds of other things in common. They attend the same kind of

schools, colleges, and universities; take similar courses; study the same textbooks; and collect the same kind of education measured in semester units. The common life comes whether or not we will it. *The prime function, therefore, of universal secondary education is to provide a common education for the common life of the whole population.*

The central problem of curriculum building for secondary education is to identify these common elements in the experiences of all, and to prepare materials and procedures which will insure that all youth have an opportunity to share in these experiences. These common elements of our common life, therefore, ought to become the core curricula for all youth in the secondary schools. The building of such curricula will require a thorough and fundamental reorganization of the entire program of studies. These new materials should be developed and carefully graded for every level of secondary education from the first year of the junior high school through the junior college, and they should also be graded for different ability groups.

2. A second major issue in modern secondary education relates to the kind of program of vocational education that is needed for modern conditions. There is no doubt but that this issue of vocational education is one of the most critical in American education at the present time. The President of the United States has recognized this issue in his unwillingness to make further federal appropriations for vocational education until a comprehensive study of the entire problem has been made.

Our Commission has been giving a great deal of consideration to this problem of vocational education. The widespread application of technology to industry and agriculture has resulted everywhere in a more rapid increase in production than in employment opportunities. This trend, which was distinguishable in the twenties in many of our basic industries, has become the characteristic phenomenon of the period of national recovery. Indeed, as the recent report of the National Resources Board discloses, the nation's output increased forty-six per cent between 1929, with a simultaneous increase of but sixteen per cent in the nation's labor force. On the other hand, while production in 1935 was fourteen per cent above 1920, the unit labor requirement was twenty-eight per cent lower. The volume of unemployment in 1935 was accordingly nearly nine times that in 1920. Thus employment as well as re-employment lags behind general recovery and constitutes one of the most serious social and economic problems. In fact, unless it is possible to increase our production of goods and services by twenty per cent, there is no prospect of returning to the employment levels of 1929. Furthermore, em-

ployment opportunities in manufacturing and agriculture, two of our basic industries, are declining for the first decade in our national life. Nor is there any reason to expect that the service industries that expanded so rapidly in the twenties will not similarly reach a saturation point.

In addition to this divergence between the increase of productivity and employment opportunities, there are taking place significant technological changes within industry itself which will further change the character of the work process. The scrapping of old equipment and the introduction of multiple units of automatic or semi-automatic machines has not only reduced the number of workers employed, but the amount of skill required for their operation has often been reduced. The repetitive nature of work has increased as has the labor turnover on particular operations. Furthermore, some recent studies of displaced workers disclose that the qualities which help men to rise to skilled jobs and high wages while at work are of limited use in helping men to readjust satisfactorily when the job goes; and that the majority who did find jobs found them in industries or occupations other than those in which they were previously employed. Youth faces thus an occupational future in industry that is becoming more mechanized, less concerned with highly developed mechanical skills, less given to practical instruction outside the industrial plant, and more insecure for one with a single vocational skill.

A system of vocational education which would be adequate in such a changing situation should provide for training of a short-term type far more diversified than ever before in respect to the fields in which the training is offered, participated in by both industry and the school, and stressing opportunities for rapid and effective re-training. Such instruction of youth would become effective through the wide use of present promising beginnings of occupational and placement information that is provided through a well organized placement service.

Furthermore, such a system of vocational education should recognize a three-fold responsibility upon school, community, and the employers. The schools should be required to provide educational opportunities for all qualified youth on the secondary level, designed not primarily to impart particular techniques, but to develop such an adaptability that shifting from one job to another is made practicable and further designed with such resourcefulness that youth in routine jobs will be able to find other life satisfactions in extra-occupational interests.

What has been said above relative to vocational education raises the whole problem of the relationship between general and vocational education. Experience has shown that individual

vocational diagnoses of youth are not practical nor very reliable until youth are well along into their adolescence, preferably fourteen to eighteen years of age. This means that differentiation of youth prior to the beginning of the senior high-school period is not advisable, and that prior to that time the program of education should be fairly general and uniform for all, and that emphasis should be placed almost entirely upon a general or liberal education. There will be, of course, individual exceptions to these generalizations and the schools should be prepared to take these exceptions into account.

The curriculum should not be thought of as designed to give specific training for vocations. *Its primary purpose should be to give preparation for intelligent participation in the experiences of life which are shared in by all people--for general living in a modern community.* If properly organized with suitable electives, it will also supply a basis for the first level of specialization, which will be entered upon in the tenth or eleventh school year.

What is here called the first level of specialization requires definition in order to distinguish it from the specialization provided in technical and professional schools. The first level of specialization is one on which the pupil population will divide not merely as a result of the acceptance of the few elective opportunities offered in connection with the core curriculum, but as a result of the deliberate selection of certain related groups of courses that involve more direct preparation for groups of pursuits.

Modern conditions have brought into positions of importance parallel with those of the time-honored learned professions other callings, notable among which are engineering, business management, professional agriculture, and governmental service. Preparations for these callings is generally recognized as vocational in type. For the new professions courses of study are needed which are not included in the traditional pre-professional, classical curriculum. With diminishing emphasis on the classical subjects and increasing demands for new courses, confusion has arisen with respect to the terms, liberal and vocational. The fact is that the only truly liberal education is that which furnishes the common background for cultured life and intelligent citizenship.

In contrast with general, liberal education, vocational education aims at the cultivation of particular abilities. Even here, however, there are certain introductory forms of education which are comparatively broad in scope. When the vocational outlooks open to young people are analyzed, it becomes evident that groups of courses can be arranged, each group having certain common elements. For example, all the vocations which deal with machinery have a common background in physical science. All the voca-

tions which are of the type commonly classified as commercial have a background in economics. The learned professions have a background in history and literature.

The relation between the liberal and the vocational parts of the secondary-school curriculum has been a subject of violent controversy in recent years. The time has come when this controversy must end if young people are to have proper preparation for life. A plan of instruction must be adopted which will include for all pupils both vocational education and general, or liberal, education in the true sense of the word. The two kinds of education are not antithetical but supplementary. The really liberal curriculum is that which prepares for the common activities of all citizens. The vocational curriculum is that which trains pupils to follow the lines dictated by their individual differences. Whatever the period of schooling, the school should at all times aim to cultivate two types of intellectual maturity, two types of information, and two types of interpretation of the facts known to modern science and letters—one vocational in its interests and applications; one general, directly related to the common social life of humanity. *At the beginning of secondary education, general education should be stressed. During the later years vocational education should come into prominence.*

3. The third great field of importance in secondary education to-day has to do with the responsibility of the schools for the employment and vocational adjustment of youth. One of the crucial points in our youth problem which we have discovered is the steadily widening gap which exists between the completion of school on the one hand and the beginning of employment on the other for an increasing percentage of American youth. Society, therefore, is faced with the problem of finding some productive way to bridge this gap. The first problem that presents itself is that of who or what agency or agencies shall be responsible for helping youth make this transition. At the present time under our compulsory school laws, the schools are responsible for youth up to the end of the compulsory school period. When that stage is reached our youth are catapulted into society with no one responsible for their adjustment. We have literally hundreds of social agencies working with and for youth, but the responsibility for this major problem is not centered in any agency or group.

It is my belief that the schools are the only appropriate agency to assume the responsibility. However, it does not seem possible for practical reasons that the schools can assume the entire responsibility. It must be shared by other groups, such as employers and governmental agencies, particularly the Employment Services.

Space will not permit more than a brief sketch of my concept of an adequate program to deal with this problem. *The first essential step is the development of a cumulative youth census.* Every state should have a continuous inventory of its oncoming youth. This inventory may well be a cumulative and extended school census and should include full educational and vocational data relative to all youth in the state under twenty-one years of age. A state cannot do basic and long-range planning to meet the needs of its youth unless it first has full information which only a cumulative census will provide. The underlying purpose of such an inventory should be to differentiate the background, experiences, capacities, interests, and present status of all youth under twenty-one so as to furnish basic material for the determination of policies and plans that will make the optimum contribution to their educational and social needs on the one hand, and will best promote the welfare of society on the other.

Such an inventory of youth ought to lay the factual foundation upon which a state should be able to approach the answer to such questions as the following:

1. What are the needs for services to youth in the state?
2. What are the institutional resources now available in the state for meeting these needs for services?
3. What, if any, additional services will be necessary to meet these needs?
4. What financial resources will be available for these needs, and what additional resources will be required?

The next essential step in such a program is the development of a new service—one which will successfully correlate the functions of the schools with those of the employers of labor. The first feature of this service must be a system for collecting occupational and employment data on a nation-wide scale. This can best be done through an employment service, national in scope, and inclusive in character. An adequate plan for the collection of data on employment requires a continuous inventory of the number and types

There is necessity for careful correlation of the work of the federal and state employment services with the operation of state unemployment insurance systems under the Social Security Act. The most effective correlation, if it could be achieved, would provide that these employment exchanges should administer relief, unemployment insurance benefits, and receive all unemployment data from employers and employees in their respective districts. If these functions were thus correlated, when one went for unemployment insurance or relief he would automatically register as available for work, and if there were appropriate work available he should not get relief.

This service should have a central statistical office in Washington where the data should be interpreted and made available for use to the entire country. This office should have a staff of trained research workers whose responsibility it should be to conduct basic research in occupational trends, the number and types of jobs and men available, classification of jobs, specifications of job requirements, analysis of traits, aptitudes, capacities, and interests of individuals in relation to job requirements.

There must also be a system for the dissemination and use of these data in industry, schools, colleges, universities, and for all other interested groups.

There should also be an organization in each community throughout the country, which will serve as a part of the national system for the collection of occupational data outlined above. This will require the coördination of all local agencies concerned with the problems of employment, education, and placement of youth. This means a close coöperation between industry, the schools, the Employment Service, and other local groups and agencies.

There should be associated with this service in each community a guidance center for youth, in which all local agencies should coöperate in an analysis of community needs and opportunities; an analysis of individual youth's characteristics, guidance, placement, and supervision of individual youth.

The guidance work in the schools should be definitely related in a functional way to this local employment service. Counsel in the schools, in order to be effective, must be more closely related to the placement of youth, for it is futile for the schools to try to counsel unless they also have some part in the placing of youth in employment. Hence, there must be developed an effective correlation of the schools with the Employment Service. Considerable experimentation is needed to determine the most effective administrative and functional relationships between the schools and the Employment Service.

BROADCASTING AS A HIGH-SCHOOL ACTIVITY

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Production of radio programs by school boys and girls is becoming a worthy addition to the modern school activity program. A thoughtful review of well established activities will reveal that their positions are held by reason of their educative contributions to young men and women.

An activity ought to increase the participant's contact with culture, and contribute to his need for vocational guidance. If radio broadcasting by students can successfully build interest and appreciations for cultural experiences, it probably is a worth-while activity. If, likewise, it introduces youth to new vocational possibilities, and uncovers latent abilities, then student broadcasting should be placed on the school's program.

The radio committee of the Montana Education Association has been interested in stimulating any use of radio facilities, which might thus make cultural and vocational contributions. Until recently most attention has been given to reception of radio within the classroom and its possible contributions to the school curriculum. The difference between radio-receiving and radio-casting is peculiarly representative of the difference between academic pursuits and the activity program--the former tending toward a static condition of receptivity, the latter toward a dynamic condition of productivity. Recognizing the dynamic values of radio-casting the committee has been anxious to see many students benefactors from the movement.

Several years ago a few schools utilized local amplifying equipment for the presentation of fake radio programs within their own building. The history department of the high school at Plentywood, Montana, produced historical plays for broadcast from a studio to a classroom. Members of the class alternated in writing script, broadcasting, and listening. Under this system programs never go on the air, but have all the practical effects of studio work, and can be arranged at low cost by a school removed from a broadcasting center.

When the United States Office of Education offered radio scripts to American schools in September of 1936, the chairman of the state radio committee encouraged the dramatic department of the Terry High School to undertake the experiment. All arrangements were made and the radio cast made its initial appearance over KGHL, Billings, Montana, radio station, two hundred

miles distant. Due to this great distance Terry High School reluctantly gave up the broadcasts which were continued by the Billings High School.

The state radio committee undertook to publicize the broadcasts and to encourage listening groups in schools within the station area. Fan mail indicated that over one hundred rural and village schools enjoyed the programs.

Other exceptional values accrued to the radio group itself. This new experience vitalized the music and dramatic departments because this project is required to meet exacting professional specifications. Directions for production of music, speech, and sound effects are provided by the U. S. Office of Education with scripts. When so prepared the project becomes an experience of value to both performer and listener.

Students were brought in contact with cultural experiences of highest sort. The scripts were prepared by experts in radio writing and the materials were exceptionally well chosen. The U. S. Office now has a new catalogue of programs mostly centering around biography and science, available upon request. Music is available in most cases.

The market for radio workers is good. The industry comprises a vast number of artisans and tradesmen. Students thus have an opportunity to see them at work and to test their own capabilities at the microphone.

Many schools will aspire to build their own programs and to give their talented students the additional training of script writing. Local color is more easily injected when a school prepares its own script. One Montana high school has successfully written and produced a weekly series of programs.

The Flathead County High School of Kalispell has a private studio connected with station KGEZ. One-half hour of broadcasting each week has reached into every department and given radio experience to more than two-hundred-fifty students during the past year. All radio programs are produced in the classroom as the result of class discussion and study. The radio dramatization, followed by classroom discussion brings about broader appreciations of the subject studied. Each student receives special instruction in the science of radio art: developing voice, modulation, articulation, pronunciation, diction rate, tone quality, expression, and coloring affected through voice and microphone placement.

With loud speakers in all rooms, the entire student body listens to the broadcast and gains a better conception of development in other departments. In this way, the broadcast serves as a continuous guidance agency and tends to eliminate confusion at

registration periods by familiarizing students with the actual work in other subjects. In addition, it informs the public of departmental achievement and contemplation.

In one Montana city the radio station has invited the superintendent of schools and his staff to act in an advisory capacity regarding the quality of general broadcasting. This committee is actively participating in the direction of program content looking toward the elimination of broadcasting objectionable to the aims of general education.

The writer feels that all school officers should participate in the direction of general broadcasting and that all students should be given the opportunity to take part in the broadcasting activity.

CITIZENSHIP BASIS OF SCHOOL'S MARKS

JOHN LUND

A new public high school in the Connecticut town of Hamden is completing a second year of experiment with an original marking system. It has one thousand two hundred and fifty students, most of whom formerly attended high schools of the neighboring city of New Haven.

In setting up this educational enterprise, the board of education had resolved that building, equipment, policy, and program were to be modern and forward looking. The school was to be concerned fundamentally with effective growth of personality and character.

Thus the school discarded the system of marking that is held to foredoom a substantial number of students to failure before they start, stress inferiority and superiority, and challenge children to beat the game.

The new plan for marks and reports in this new school is, in brief, as follows: Three times during the year every student takes home an envelope containing statements of progress made out by the home-room teacher and each subject teacher. It tells whether or not the general quality of work in terms of this student's ability is satisfactory. Also, whether the students has given evidence of satisfactory growth in the use of power to learn; the use of power to think independently; in general school citizenship; ability to complete tasks assumed; making contributions to group activity; consideration for the rights of others; happy and harmonious adjustment; respect for and use of materials and equipment; the use of initiative.

NON-VOCATIONAL PRINTING INSTRUCTION

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Graphic arts education, as related to organized education, has developed slowly but steadily during the past twenty-five years. There are to-day more than two thousand five hundred schools, public and private, that offer some form of printing instruction. The total teaching staff numbers about three thousand. The instruction reaches no less than five hundred thousand young people during each school year.

Printing, as a subject of instruction, owes its place in the school system to the printing industry. In 1911 the United Typothetae of America, an international trade association of master printers, started a movement for better educated and better trained personnel for all branches of the industry—for the shop, the office, and the field. The leaders of the movement, although recognizing the importance of industrial education of the day, were of the opinion that the plant printshop was the logical place for training craftsman and other technical workers for the industry.

These forward-looking men, however, did everything possible to encourage the school phase of the training program, by supplying the source material for educational texts, by coöperating with local school boards, and by employing an educator as the director of education to offer strictly educational service to school administrators and teachers of printing. The result was that from the very beginning school instruction in printing got started on the right foot.

As a result of the coöperation between industry and the school, strange as it may seem, the development was not in the direction of loading the school system with large numbers of expensively equipped vocational schools. In the entire United States there are less than twenty-five strictly vocational schools on a secondary level that are equipped to train craftsmen for the printing industry. These are located more or less strategically, and with several private schools, such as the Wentworth Institute in Boston, the Dunwoody Institute at Minneapolis, the Chicago School of Printing, are meeting much

of the demand for vocationally trained young people for industry.

It ought to be stated, lest there be misunderstanding as to apprenticeship and craftsmanship training for the printing trades, that organized labor, specifically the International Typographical Union and the International Pressmen and Assistants' Union of North America, have well-organized training programs independent of the public-school system. The former offers high grade correspondence courses to young men affiliated with the union as operated by the pressmen at Pressmen's Home, Tennessee. There is really no excuse, therefore, for the shortage of apprentices in the basic printing processes, except by the failure of the industry to use the training facilities that are already on hand through schools and through trade channels.

The greatest and perhaps the most important development in graphic arts education is along the lines of non-vocational instruction in printing. The great majority of the educational institutions offering this type of instruction are senior and junior high schools. In the senior high school, printing, by reason of its well-known educational values, is an excellent industrial arts subject of instruction. For this purpose there is no need for elaborate equipment, merely work, and simple bindery operations. It thus becomes a laboratory course and, in an integrated program, has a highly stimulating effect upon such fundamental subjects as English and art instruction.

In the junior high school, printing instruction adapts itself admirably as a finding or exploratory course for both boys and girls. On this level the equipment is not nearly as important as the right type of teacher. The shop equipment should be the simplest possible for teaching hand composition only and for presswork and other elementary operations that do not require the use of power machinery. Some of the very best printing teachers in America may be found in our junior high schools. This is as it should be. The value of this instruction, in the short time that can be allotted to it, is to stress the importance of printing as a means of communication; to point out its historic significance in the development of education, business, government, and religion; its modern status in American business and life; and the opportunities it offers for a worth-while career to young men and young women. In showing its related values to other subjects of instruction—

theoretical and practical—calls for an instructor skilled not only in teaching technique, but with a good background of knowledge and training in the graphic arts processes.

The real purpose of non-vocational instruction in printing in both senior and junior high schools may be designated as *appreciation of printing*. This has an academic and a practical significance to every pupil in our schools. It certainly is not the proper function of an industrial arts course or of an exploratory course to train directly for the industry. This is the work of the vocational or trade school. The fact that each pupil uses the printed word in his school work in the form of text material, school publications of various types, in the required and non-required books, papers, magazines, that he reads, and varied printing material he will use for the rest of his life, whatever his business, profession, or calling—makes it necessary that he knows something of the functions and uses of printing.

Printing is being considered more and more as a branch of fine arts and as such involves the elements of arrangement, balance, design, color, and certain styles and forms that conform to the different style periods in American life. Higher schools recognize the educational and practical values; and hence we have colleges and universities that teach printing as a fine arts subject, as an engineering subject, as a management subject, and as a teacher-training subject.

But to get back to the non-vocational work of the junior and senior high-school levels—printing adapts itself also to the modern student-activities program. During the past two years this has been tried out in the organization of student graphic arts clubs in some of the leading schools of printing in the United States. These ten objectives and purposes are being aimed at and, to a considerable extent, have been realized:

1. To unite the students and instructors in the graphic arts field for mutual and educational benefits.
2. To emphasize the cultural and practical aspects of graphic arts education.
3. To conduct regular student projects and to award recognition for outstanding pupil achievements.
4. To stimulate pupils to appreciate and to use the several methods of graphic duplication for personal pleasure and social betterment.
5. To promote printing and allied processes as handicraft or manual arts hobbies, for now is the time boys are interested in developing hobbies.

6. To encourage schools to improve their printing courses for educational purposes instead of using the printing department merely as a mechanical convenience.

7. To encourage a wholesome, frank, personal relationship between students and instructors, and to relate this spirit of comradeship to community life.

8. To promote and develop pupil activity and leadership.

9. To get the pupils' viewpoint and to work with them instead of on them.

10. To carry on a systematic exchange of ideas and samples of work between clubs and graphic arts instructors and educators.

School administrators, alert to educational values in a subject of instruction that is simple and yet profound enough to run the whole gamut of education from the elementary school through the university, have not been slow in introducing the subject in the various courses of study. The added fact that their school subjects, from the student-activities standpoint, can and does hold the active interest of that large group of high-school students who employ it as an extra-curriculum outlet for literary or journalistic effort, for manual and artistic skill, for promotion of the interests of the local school in the community,—as distinguished from the comparatively small group that can take part in the athletic program—is worthy of a much wider use in the secondary schools of the country.

The old idea that the school printshop is the place for printing the various forms, pamphlets, booklets, and student organs, etc., is definitely outmoded. This has not only retarded the educational values of printing as a subject of instruction, but has brought school training and activity in disrepute with the printing industry. The school-printing laboratory, as conceived of to-day, is not a production shop for school printing. It is a place for experimental study and the application of principles of science and of art and of educational theory.

The high standard that had been established for printing instruction is due to a group of school-minded industry leaders, and to a group of industry-minded school people who have worked together through the years. At present the directing agency of these coöperative bodies is The National Graphic Arts Education Guild, with its offices at 719 Fifteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

AN INFORMED PUBLIC IS A SYMPATHETIC PUBLIC

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Up and down the streets of Middletown men and women talk of the high school because they talk of their children. They talk of the high school and they are proud of it, as they are proud of their children. They slap one another on the back in common exultation when the basketball team wins a district championship, or when the high-school band in spanking new uniforms marches down the street. The universal urge for victory, the love of pageantry, the parental instinct—all these and other instincts and emotions make our citizens friends and allies of the school. Unhappily, principals in general have been satisfied, and in normally prosperous times have not had their complacency jolted. When the mass of people had no insistent worries, when they could enjoy the tide of life from day to day and put aside a little against the college education of the children and their own declining days, they were not moved to be critical about what the children were obviously enjoying.

But when times grew hard, when the savings stopped, when the normal pleasures had to be curtailed, and worry began to be reflected in people's features, normally indulgent citizens fell to asking questions about their tax money: Why was the high school costing so much? The record in a thousand communities reads the same. Once the questions were asked, citizens discovered that they knew very little of what the modern high school was attempting. They had a vast amount of confused and pointless information on athletics and a general impression that the chief activity of the high school was extra-curriculum. They began to listen to what certain cranks were saying about fads and frills. The words were convenient and the argument seemed sound. They asked about the new services of the high school and from their informants on the street, and in their clubs, and at church learned little except that it "is beginning to look as if we'll have to put a stop to the foolish expenditures of the high school and get back to fundamentals." Parents heard the criticisms and asked children about them. The children didn't know of anything especially new. High school was fun, they were not interpreters; they

could not see or tell the educational purpose or significance of most of what they did.

Little by little the criticisms grew more insistent and more articulate. Friends of fatter years augmented the chorus of disapproval. Organizations which have never been friendly to school expenditures were emboldened to strike. School boards felt growing pressure toward economies and suggestions as to what the economies might be. New departments of the high school were dropped, teachers were thrown out of work; others had to teach impossibly heavy loads in crowded and insanitary classrooms. Soon it became apparent to students of the times that education, particularly secondary education, was suffering more consistent and more damaging attacks than any other division of public service.

Nor is the road ahead all bathed in sunshine. Educators have seen what can happen in two or three years to an intricate structure reared painstakingly through a score of years; and many of them have understood WHY it happened. The community must know the school as it knows its church and its own firesides.

It must know that home economics, industrial arts, the cafeteria, the health service, guidance, and the club program are not only relatively new but extremely vital to the growth of the children of the community. The principal has seen that he must explain these activities and others through every means at his command; he must make the average citizen feel that the high school must carry on without emasculation of departments; that it cannot serve the public well unless its teachers have decent wages and time enough to stretch and breathe and be citizens of the community; that buildings must be kept in repair so that children may continue to live normal, healthy lives.

Moreover, the principal has realized with a tightening of the jaw muscles that if he is to let the searchlight of inquiry and explanation play about his high school from alpha to omega he must have his house in order from alpha to omega. If he is going to teach the public to want good teachers and to recognize them, he must have good teachers. If he is going to sell modern methods of teaching to Middletown, he must have modern methods to sell. If he is to make the public distinguish between athletics for the sake of winning victories and athletics for better bodies and cleaner lives, he must cleanse his athletic stables. As a matter of fact, the sooner

he begins to interpret his whole school, the sooner he is likely to find bad spots which if left to spread would soon corrupt. He must be an interpreter, and in so being he will force himself to be a better principal.

Why has all this come about? There may be a score of contributory reasons, but the main one is this: *Principals have not been educated to the need of interpreting their schools to the public, nor trained in the means for doing it.* If principals have had little opportunity to study school interpretation, teachers have had even less; teachers' colleges in the main have failed to see any relationship between the classroom and the community. A few well-planned courses are appearing in the larger universities of the country, and one may perhaps feel some little optimism. For years, a few prophets have insisted that the public must know more about the schools. The field was new; it wanted experts. Young men for the most part were drawn into the more established fields, those in which the landmarks were better recognized, where teaching positions in university or teachers' college were better assured. As a result principals (and teachers) have been graduated year after year with but the faintest inkling of their duties as interpreters and how to discharge those duties.

Every principal should be a student of interpretation; if he cannot get a good course in a summer session, he should get it for himself. His course should include some basic work in journalism; study of the philosophy of school interpretation; organization for school interpretation; attitudes of editors and characteristics of newspapers; school publications as interpreters; teachers in the school and out; exhibits, demonstrations, etc.; radio and amateur movies; the school plant, and the community itself as interpreter through its organized groups. Directors of interpretation whether so titled or not have experimented successfully in many of the larger cities. A few principals have written about the visible results of their endeavors at interpretation and a few capable investigations of practice, especially in newspaper publicity, have been made.

Some journalistic training will teach the principal that there are universally accepted news values. A brief examination of each of them will prove that the school is rich in news. The first is *timeliness*—Almost every day something happens in a school, as in a community. An honor is bestowed, a victory is won, an important project is completed, a fundamental

change is made—all of these are timely and they must be reported while the news is "hot." Another is *consequence*—Even the dullest of readers can be made to see the consequence to the community of broad school movements, of health developments and researches, of inadequate housing, of high ratings on state tests; of guidance, vocational education, and individualized instruction. A third is *proximity*—The high school is just down the street or around the corner. Nothing could be much closer to the homes of Middletown. Most important is *human interest*—Drama is ever present in the school. Most of the worth-while developments can be reported in such a way as to utilize the reader's yearning for some of the following: for contrasts, for achievement against odds, for combat, for the unusual, for sacrifice.

Knowing how to write for newspaper readers is of tremendous importance. Many a well meant but tedious article about the school has been withheld by an editor to make place for a lively story about the gang activities of a group of junior high-school boys or the firing from the team of a star athlete. Newspaper editors want to interest their readers. Newspapers demand a style different from the style of textbooks or pedagogical papers. Every conscientious principal must give himself a course in newspaper writing. He must learn to be concrete, brief, and pointed. Nouns and verbs must be his stock in trade. He must look for the specific activity that will explain service. He must learn the value of pictures and something of the art of taking them.

Along with his fundamental work in journalism, the principal who would be an interpreter of his school must study all the means of conveying knowledge to the public. He must understand the basic principles of public relations in the business world and in his own. He should study the relative merits of continuous and campaign publicity; indeed, he should arrive at a satisfactory distinction between publicity and interpretation. Every agency which might serve to carry his story of the school to the people should be scanned; every fact to be told should be studied that it may be made understandable and attractive in the telling.

The rôle that high-school publications may play in explaining the school should occupy his serious attention. The newspaper is constantly growing in importance as the voice of high-school students; it is to the high-school community what the commercial press is to the community at large. Pupils, and

back of pupils the parents, are influenced through its columns. Significant also in a good interpretation program are such publications as handbooks, programs, magazines, and yearbooks. Allowed to take their course like Topsy they may be of little value to anyone. Skillfully directed in the light of a unified program, they may be of untold value.

The most casual of them, the printed program, may for instance entertain the patron with background facts about the show or the concert and explain how several departments of the school coöperated in the enterprise. Not many principals consider the program as of any importance except to bear information about the specific program it announces. Making it attractive has not even been considered an obligation to patrons or to the school.

The handbook is fast attaining a place of commanding importance in the larger high schools. As a means of specific interpretations to pupils and to parents it is invaluable. At little expense even small high schools may and do have good handbooks. Magazines and yearbooks have become more interesting rather than less interesting when designed to give unified and truthful impressions of school activities.

The activities themselves must be included as a part of any course in school interpretation. How many athletics, dramatics, musical organizations best represent the educational values desired by the school? They are, as the principal must see, direct apostles of the school, representing ideals of education in concrete form. If the ideals miscarry under the blunderings of stupid or selfish directors, the public will brand the whole school accordingly. Some types of activities such as assemblies and commencement programs have been among leading means of conveying significant information to pupils, parents, and others.

The course in school interpretation will necessarily include study of means of using the club program of the high school to establish friendly relations with the community and to foster understandings. Character clubs, civic clubs, government clubs, and hobby clubs all have distinct points of contact with groups of the neighborhood. The more the principal can draw on the community in the furtherance of his club program the more the ideals underlying it will be manifest to the people. The program of public relations will lack depth and breadth if it does not bring the people of the community into intimate

relations with teachers and pupils at as many points as possible.

The pupils themselves can be good interpreters. Beyond maintaining a good school the principal must learn what has been done and what can be done to teach school objectives and ideals to pupils through home rooms, courses, and special talks. Parents can hardly be expected to get correct impressions of a school that the pupil understands but hazily. Not often has the pupil been led to see his program as a unified whole.

At no point will the principal's preparation for interpretation be more exacting than in his consideration of the teacher's place in the program. What part of it is connected with the classroom, what part with extra-class activities, and what with the community? Teachers are becoming aroused to their responsibilities and will probably be increasingly prepared to assume an active part in developing public understanding and support.

Most principals have had some experience with exhibits, demonstrations, and some application of the open house idea. American Education Week has given much impetus to practices of inviting the public to the schools and attempting once a year to demonstrate what the school is doing. The principal will not rest with the one week of intensive interpretation. He will weave into every week some exhibits or demonstrations of the educational activities of the school. He will learn how he may gain the coöperation of business men to give show windows for continuous exhibitions of the handiwork of pupils, or how he may use empty stores, as others have done, for demonstration and exhibition purposes, to enable people passing to and from work to observe typical classes at work and to examine pupil products in woodwork, needlework, cookery, arts and crafts, fine arts, inventions, and other activities.

An exceptionally promising but as yet little developed field is that of amateur moving pictures and radio. The 8 millimeter and 16 millimeter cameras are not expensive to operate and are extremely effective in teaching fundamental activities of the school. In Jersey City activity from kindergarten through high school has been depicted. Other cities have found both movies and radio excellent means of cultivating understandings in the community. Both fields involve some technical difficulties which must be studied by the interpreter. School photography in general is increasing in importance as a means of interpretation. The nation is becoming picture conscious;

it is being taught by new-type magazines to read pictures and brief description instead of long articles. The school must keep abreast of the times.

Principals active in school interpretation have found the school plant itself very useful in teaching facts about the school. They have urged community groups to use the school as a community center; they have conducted groups through the buildings, making careful explanations of school building standards in relation to pupil health, comfort and learning. Moreover, principals are coming to see that beauty and utility of school grounds and buildings are in themselves a warrant of school ideals.

Finally, principals will have need to make an exhaustive study of the community and its organized groups as interpreting agencies. Many of such groups include in their objectives the promotion of education. Usually they are willing to help if they are given some leadership. Service organizations, in particular, have a record of activity in taking school matters to the community. Community character clubs such as the Boy Scouts, Campfire Girls, Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A. will be seen to have an intimate connection with school and may serve to unite in better understanding the community and the high school. Churches, of course, have always been allies of the school and must not be overlooked in a thorough program of interpretation. Patriotic organizations have too often had more zeal than guidance in their educational programs. The principal will find need for tact and skill in directing their activities in behalf of his school. Women's clubs are quick to help in any school project when they can see what is to be done. Most important of all are the parent-teacher groups. Much of the success of the principal's program will depend upon the vigor and temper of the Parent-Teacher Association.

The future of all public education, but especially of public secondary education, depends upon the extent to which principals recognize their new responsibility to make of themselves skilled interpreters of their schools. It cannot be done overnight or in a single year, but it *can* be done and *will* be done with some effort.

PENNSYLVANIA PRINCIPALS' ASSOCIATIONS AS DISCUSSION GROUPS

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In March, 1930, some thirty Pennsylvania high-school principals met in a hotel dining room to discuss school problems and determine whether they desired to organize for co-operative thinking on matters related to their profession. The director of secondary education for the state, told of the growing number of local principals' groups and suggested that they perfect such an organization. There being no dissenting voice, the organization was quickly set up and then the men began to tell what they wanted to consider in future meetings.

Here the real enthusiasm of the group was shown. The chairman had a bit of difficulty keeping the privilege of the floor in the possession of one man at a time. It seemed that everyone present had some problem that he was keen about having solved as soon as possible. They were real problems with which these busy men were wrestling every day. When the smoke cleared away, the secretary had in his minutes the following:

"The meeting was a most enthusiastic one, the men being thoroughly alive professionally and desirous of assistance in the solution of their pressing problems. Some of these problems were: courses of study, guidance, standard tests in high school, what constitutes graduation, college board examination, the home room, ability grouping, student councils, failures, supervised study, over-agedness, types of diplomas, report cards, and permanent record cards."

This secondary-school principals' association is now in the eighth year of its existence and the members are as enthusiastic as they were on that first evening. Floods and severe winter weather have occasionally interrupted and cut down the attendance but a meeting has never been called off. No effort has been necessary to build up attendance artificially. In the winter of 1936 a questionnaire was sent to the presidents of the fifty-five associations in the State of Pennsylvania. Thirty-six of them returned the questionnaires carefully filled out. Replies indicated that the associations ranged in size from twelve to two hundred with a median of twenty-five.

The median attendance reported was twenty-three, just two less than the median number of members.

There is nothing unusual about the enthusiasm of these men for coöperative discussion of their problems. This has been done since the first two hunters met in the forest and, by whatever means of communication they possessed, discussed their kill for the day. They may even have considered better methods of snaring the elusive prey. But recently special emphasis is being placed on the value and possibilities of coöperative consideration of common problems. In this age when the radio and movie and newspaper and billboard are threatening to transform education into propaganda, many frontier thinkers are recommending that the leaders in the educational field emulate the townspeople of New England and get together for discussion of vital problems,

School men in Pennsylvania have reported to the Department of Secondary-School Principals fifty-six local associations. Not all of these are made up exclusively of secondary-school principals but the problems of secondary-school principals are prominent in the discussions of all the organizations reporting. It is significant that the oldest organization reporting came into being in 1918, the year in which the NEA Committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education came out with its recommended aims of secondary education. Another was started in 1919. When we consider the great increase in enrollment in secondary schools since 1920, we have one reason for the rapid growth in groups whose purpose is to study the problems which are constantly arising in the attempt to meet the needs of this increasing population.

These groups meet from two to ten times during the school year, the median number of meetings being seven. About half of the associations hold their meetings at one place, the remainder moving around from place to place. One-third of those reporting plan their year's program in advance while the remainder plan for only one meeting at a time. Only one in six charge membership fees.

In 1935-36 the subjects most frequently discussed were guidance, records and reports, testing programs, marking systems, curriculum, supervision and character education, these subjects ranging in frequency of mention from seven to three. Additional topics mentioned less frequently were textbooks, discipline, forensics, debating, pupil progress (how best to determine), the credit union, adult education, reading,

backward children, county music and literary league, safety, coöperative buying, unifying standards for large and small high schools, failures, promotions, significant experiments in secondary education, recent trends in industrial education, reports of national and state departments of secondary-school principals, extra-curriculum activities, community contacts, selection of texts and tests, testing program for all eighth-grade pupils, possibility of a county-guidance clinic, and interpreting the schools to the public.

A study of programs for 1936-37 reveals the following additional subjects of discussion: achievement, marks, honor rolls, awards, legislation, programs (assembly, graduation, etc.), public relations, reading, the library, secondary school and college, current educational problems, the supervising principal, the assignment, background for reorganization of schools, budgets, handwriting, how we learn, the junior high school, mental hygiene, philosophy of education, results of English projects, salary increments in fourth class districts, teaching mathematics, and vocational agriculture.

Much might be gained in our principals' associations by giving the patrons of the school a place on the discussion programs. Many local organizations may be brought in for coöperative consideration of these vital secondary-school problems. Among such organizations are: parent-teacher associations, boy and girl scout leaders, young people's Christian and Hebrew associations, Association of University Women, Lions, Kiwanis, Rotary, Chamber of Commerce, American Legion, ministerium, leaders of political parties, United States and State Employment services, labor leaders, legislative representatives, librarians' associations, government agencies including WPA educational leaders and CCC representatives. Representatives of institutions of higher education which receive products of the high schools should participate in such discussions. It is even conceivable that moving picture, radio, and newspaper workers might be helpful in the solution of certain secondary-school problems. Certainly, also, all adult education organizations of whatever type should be welcomed to discussions carried on by secondary-school principals.

Digests from Lay Magazines

THE LEARNING PROCESS

By KATHERINE TAYLOR

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Condensed from *The Atlantic*, October, 1937, pp. 496-502
8 Arlington Street, Boston, Mass.

There will always be mystery about how learning occurs. Children can be given hundreds of standardized group tests, and the net results will be some information about the ability of each individual child so examined to meet the conditions of the test in question. But these tests do not tell us very much about how children learn. They tell us that certain children can or cannot do these specific things at this time. They do not tell us what has led to success or failure.

Teachers have little chance to become complacent, for if they notice children at all, they realize how much that is taught is not learned, and how much that is learned is not taught by those paid to teach. Trivial subject matter may frustrate excellent teaching, but subject matter which has beauty, depth, and relation to life or to ideas, can sometimes reach across a wilderness of poor teaching to a child's mind. However, for the one who can learn despite barrenness in the teaching there are many who slip away from learning because no illumination of thought has occurred.

Learning does not occur easily or casually; it requires discipline, careful direction, and hard work. But when work is related to meaning, the result is a motion towards something definite and a deepening of discipline. If a teacher's relation to his subject is superficial, the children will not be enlisted, since learning depends partly upon a contagion of thought from one person to another.

Learning is an affair of the entire personality. If you listen to any young child's questions about the things he deals

with, or about the nature of the universe, you cannot fail to see that his curiosity of mind, his zest for knowledge and for experience, are part of his being. To see this, and to direct these superb energies without letting them become dimmed or scattered, is part of the job of a school.

Children fourteen years old are on the margin of adult living. They want to know what makes people behave as they do, and what is at the root of questions that concern the adults of their own day. Yet they often evade the questions which command their interest, lest they expose their inadequacy. The teacher of ninth-grade English devoted part of the course to something which would help the children to see that most contemporary questions are the current phases of problems that have existed in human society for a very long time. A six or seven weeks' study was organized around a topic, which involved consideration of the individual in relation to authority. The class read the Constitution of the United States and its Amendments, in order to get some idea of what our government expects from the individual and offers to him; a large part of the court record of the trial of Jeanne d'Arc; Bernard Shaw's *Saint Joan*, and part of the Preface; and the *Trial of Socrates*. The Latin teacher read with them in Latin from the Vulgate the account of the trial of Jesus before Pilate. Individual members of the class worked on special topics. Some of the subjects were taken from literature, as the analysis of a part of Milton's *Areopagitica*; some were taken from current affairs as an inquiry about control of broadcasting in the United States and Great Britain.

Current issues which were related to this general idea were discussed. News clippings describing specific events were brought in, and the class attempted to discriminate between those which were highly tinged with editorial opinion and those which confined themselves to the statement of fact. Many questions came up upon which information was wanted. Some of these were: How have the laws on freedom of the press and of speech in the United States differed in times of peace and in times of war? How do our laws on these subjects differ from those of other countries? May advertisers make false statements about their own or competitors' goods? May soap-box orators say anything they want to? Do our laws discriminate against special groups? Does truth constitute a sure defense in a libel suit?

The class organized these questions under several headings, and referred them to one of the parents, a lawyer. He came to the class and discussed some of the questions with the children from the point of view of the rights and obligations of the individual in a commonwealth.

In the process of the work the children learned a good deal about how to find information from both primary and secondary sources. They had practice in note making and outlining, and in expository writing. They wrestled with a good many incidents in the search for the ideas within them. Although they could not fully assimilate these ideas, they perceived them and established a basis for later encounters.

Looking back upon their own dealings with each other as younger children, they identified some of the motives beneath their behavior. They were then able to consider some of their present actions with the same kind of discernment. They began to see that objective thinking comes hard and that motives are often wrapped up in formulas which have little to do with the case: Socrates was "corrupting the youth"; Jesus was "destroying the law"; Jeanne was "a heretic". They watched three great and courageous persons coping with the forces that were out to defeat them.

The sequence of learning in the field of human situations is less apparent than in mathematics or a foreign language. Yet the essential elements are present. Children may be comparing the conditions of travel or employment in the time of the ancient Greeks or the American pioneers with these conditions to-day. They observe facts and find relationships. They learn a systematized technique. There are moments when concepts are unearthed, such as the idea of the heroic as it is seen in the *Iliad*, in the journal of an American family crossing the plains in a covered wagon, and some aspect of twentieth-century life.

Learning how people have struggled to solve the problems of human society may help children to realize that human affairs demand much from the individual, and that in matters of life the evidence is never fully assembled.

Imposed competition seems to clutter learning unnecessarily. It is unrealistic in that it takes too little cognizance of growth or circumstance. A weak will can be kept going by means of external stimuli, but it is doubtful whether either the will or the intellect is changed for the better when subjected to the prize system. The will, thus aroused, is likely to

attach itself to the idea of winning rather than to the idea of learning. Children must be kept informed regularly of their progress, in the terms of the work they are doing, but when a school uses a system of public grading and prize giving as the chief energizing factor in its pupils' work, confusion of values seems almost inevitable.

Occasionally one finds a child who has lost his self-confidence, or one for whom no facts or ideas seem to have any interest, or a child who is unable to look objectively at his own progress. Such children must for a time be shown, daily or weekly, a chart of their own progress. But these same children might be prostrated at that time by having their relative academic standing publicly announced. They have some basis for competing with their own work of the previous week, but they have no clear basis for intellectual competition with their neighbor, who is a different person altogether.

The sooner children can learn to recognize their own difficulties, the more likely are they to lend their will power to solving them. The intrusion of prizes into this simple situation adds an element of chance which obscures the facts of growth, of legitimate individual differences, and of the subject studied. It diverts the attention from the real object.

TOWARD IMPROVING LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

By M. M. GUHIN

Condensed from *The American-German Review*, September, 1937
pp. 39, 50, 51

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In 1936, a group of educators were sent to Germany, Austria, and other Central European countries to study their methods of teaching foreign languages. The objects of this tour were to obtain ideas that European experience might contribute to American education in this field and to promote better understanding between the peoples of America and Europe. The *Education Group* consisted of nine men, among whom were Dr. Paul Packer, Dean of Education, University of Iowa; Dr. Aubrey Douglass, State Supervisor of Secondary Education for California, and Dr. M. M. Guhin, Instructor in Teachers College, Aberdeen, South Dakota.

In Germany all children attend the *Grundschule* for the first four grades. All children do work equivalent to the *Volkschule* which ends with the eighth grade. Only about ten per cent of the children do the work in the *Gymnasiums* corresponding to our high schools. After the *Volkschule*, a large percentage of German children enter trade schools or begin their work as apprentices. Only children with good scholastic and citizenship records are accepted in the upper (high-school) classes of the *Gymnasium*.

Language teaching is carried on by the *direct* method; that is, objects, pictures, movements, and class discussions are stressed rather than textbook work. A text is not used at all for the first six weeks or two months. Translations are not stressed and grammar is taught incidentally as the need arises. In the higher classes the discussions pertain to the life, ideals, history, and achievements of the people whose language is studied. Language is a means of expression. An effort is made to get the pupils to think in the language studied. The walls of the room are almost covered with pictures, graphs, maps, etc., depicting important facts in the history of the people.

We were impressed with the possibilities of developing an intelligent, sympathetic understanding of the people whose language is studied by the method observed in Germany. French is begun the first or second year in the *Realgymnasium* (our fifth or sixth grade) and English usually a year later. Making due allowance for select groups and longer courses, it seems as if the direct method gets results in ability to use the language that are not equalled by our high schools.

The Carl Schurz Memorial Foundation project, promotion of international goodwill and understanding in the hope of ultimately eliminating the scourge of war, is surely a worthy altruistic objective.

EDUCATION AND INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

By ELIZABETH WISKEMANN

Condensed from *The Contemporary Review*, September, 1937,
pp. 308-315.

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International relations are profoundly affected by education. Not even the most arbitrary dictatorship dares to

take important international action without having sought to convince its subjects that this action was necessary and justifiable.

In shaping the attitudes of children towards international questions, history is the most important subject. Here, the achievements of France are of interest. In 1926 the National Union of French Elementary Teachers decreed a boycott against chauvinistic history textbooks. "We wish to end historical misrepresentation which contains the germs of suspicion, of hatred and of war; we hope that a great gratitude and a great pity will be born in them (their pupils) for all men of all ages and of all countries." The teachers were backed by the French Trades Union Congress, and publishers found it impossible to sell sufficient copies of history textbooks with a jingoistic flavor. Typical of a group of textbooks is the sentence, "Pasteur, who served humanity so well, saved more millions of lives than ever the folly of men destroyed upon battlefields."

While the large majority of French elementary school teachers has had pacifist and internationalist sympathies for a sufficient number of years to affect the results of Parliamentary elections in spring 1936, the accession of the Blum cabinet removed what little resistance was offered by the Ministry of Education. Teachers are left almost entirely free to choose textbooks so long as they prepare their pupils for the examinations set by the state. In the secondary schools the teachers are divided between the Right and the Left. In private schools a nationalistic note prevails. In the Lycées and Colleges the Malet-Isaac textbooks have been generally used. They have been purged of everything chauvinistic. M. Isaac has even included an account by a German colleague both of the causes of the war of 1870 and of that of 1914.

It is alleged that there can be no coöperation between states which have strikingly different political systems. In France and England, however, the defense of democracy, as it is presented to children, is based upon the necessity for tolerance which provides a foundation for internationalism and involves the condemnation of war. Among contemporary German educationists there is an overwhelming number of assertions that history must be taught as part of the Nationalist Socialist *Weltanschauung*, and that it is foolish for Germans to attempt to understand anything but a German point of view.

The attitude to war in Nazi Germany is summed up in the sentence, "War the father of all things, is also our father." Whereas in France history teaching has turned away from battles, in Germany the view is taken that in order to awaken comprehension of military questions, "the history of war must be more cherished than under the Republic."

The word *international* has been turned by Nazi ideology into a term of abuse. Modern internationalism is bitterly denounced along with the Treaty of Versailles and the League of Nations in the history books.

The second obstacle placed by German educationalists in the way of international agreement is the Race Theory. The Germanic race is held to be superior to all others with a mission to rule others—how the others are to be ruled unless they are conquered is not clear. Nazi doctrine is taught in special national-political lessons, which are attended twice a week by all school children in Germany, with the exception of the top classes in the secondary schools; the Race Theory prevades the history lessons as well.

The most fanatical teaching occurs in the Adolph Hitler Schools which prepare boys from twelve to eighteen for the final training of Nazi leaders. Care is taken to ensure that teachers are impregnated with the Nazi point of view. Students training to become teachers are sent to camp near some village on the German-Polish frontier. Here they are made to feel that German is superior to Slavonic culture, and that across the frontier there is space for Germans from overpopulated cities. Camping expeditions are made by the Hitler youth groups. There is nothing in democratic countries to compare with this virtually compulsory state organization. In France, for instance, none of the scouting has anything to do with the state nor is there any pressure upon the boys to go in for it.

The history of Germany and of Italy makes intelligible a reaction against anything that savours of international control. Yet however explicable these attitudes are, the consequent educational systems are such as to tempt one to accept the inevitability of the division of the world into politically irreconcilable blocs.

Two mitigating achievements, however, deserve to be mentioned. The reading books recently brought out in Austria provide an example of an authoritarianism which is not provocative. Although in an official reading book, one finds that

democracy is condemned, and that homage is paid to military heroes, yet war is not praised *qua* war, nor are internationalists decried. Whereas all the new German books refer to the present frontiers of the Reich as if they could not be its future ones, the Austrian reading books refer to the tremendous losses of Austria in 1919 without any implication that lost territories should be recaptured.

The second mitigation consists in an agreement early this summer between some French and German professors with regard to the teaching of history in the secondary schools. Late in 1935 two German historians suggested to a member of the French Ministry of Education the elimination of the most glaring discrepancies in the history textbooks in use on each side of the frontier. A joint memorandum had been compiled when, in June 1936, the German Government caused the transaction to be broken off. In March of that year, Herr Hitler had himself proposed that in education in France and Germany, "everything should be avoided which might be calculated to poison the relationship between the two peoples", so that this interference seemed inconsistent. Any compromise with the French, however, would necessitate the revocation of all the history books which have appeared in Germany since 1933.

It is all the more perplexing that in the spring of 1937 the negotiations were allowed to be resumed, and the results were published in two educational journals in both France and Germany.

The discussions were difficult especially in regard to more recent controversies. Over the Moroccan question (1904-1911) agreement was possible, but over the outbreak of the war in 1914, reparations, and the post-war period, the difficulty increased. The agreement is nevertheless an astonishing achievement. The negotiators have agreed to exert all their influence to get their recommendations applied not only in secondary but even in elementary schools. In Germany it can scarcely be imagined that educational publications and appeals, which condemn objectivity and denounce internationalism, will be effected.

THE FUTURE OF EDUCATION IN AMERICA AND FOR AMERICA

By WILLIAM H. KILPATRICK
Professor Emeritus of Education,
Teachers College, Columbia University
(*Valedictory on Retirement*)

Condensed from *Vital Speeches of the Day*, September 15, 1937,
pp. 706-708.

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The actual educative process walks on two legs, the psychological and the social. The American education of the future will continue to study both factors, but not as much as hitherto in separation from each other.

It may be well at the outset to speak generally about some specific matters.

1. It seems probable that our country will continue to keep church and state separate. However, we shall much better than heretofore take care of the spiritual side of child growth.

2. The national government will very soon give aid to public education, primarily to equalize educational opportunity throughout the nation. Danger, however, will lurk in the step that national control (particularly of the curriculum) may seek to follow national support.

3. Adult education must become a recognized part of the public educational enterprise. Three lines of adult education seem to stand out: re-education along vocational lines; education for leisure; and, principally, the study of current social problems.

4. The junior college bids fair to become well-nigh universal.

5. Competitive college athletics have, in great probability, passed the peak of popularity.

Besides the foregoing there are certain more important problems that confront American education.

1. *The scientific study of education.* The early attempts at the scientific study of education have mistakenly counted that laboratory situations could be indefinitely simplified and still give us psychologically reliable results. It has believed that thinking, valuing, and personality could be analyzed into study elements that were non-thinking, non-valuing, non-personal. The result has been to slight the highest manifestations of personality and thus to reduce education to formal procedures. Life and education are too precious to be trusted to Newtonian physics.

2. *Democracy in education.* For elementary and secondary education our ancestors brought from Europe an autocratic procedure. The child was required to have his will broken. We now give lip-service to respect for personality, but we have not made general any adequate school procedures whereby democracy and respect for personality may be actually lived. Not only the classroom but the school system in its management is too often autocratic. My large class this summer estimated that seventy-five per cent of superintendents run their schools autocratically. According to the best opinion democracy demands that all concerned in a decision should have a hand in making the decision.

3. *The educative process.* The education of the future will more consistently consider the whole child. Mental hygiene is here to stay. Also education will put before learning the improving of life qualitatively considered. The central aim will be to make life good for all. This will, however, succeed only as we remake our social-economic-political system so as to put life before private gain. We must study what constitutes the life good to live and how to develop this life in childhood and youth. While we must make provision in high school for specialized study along chosen lines, the pursuit of the good life must come first. Always must we put first the wish that others may live well.

4. *Educational and social change.* All education tends to carry us in some one social direction, and it is necessary that we know whither our endeavors tend. Our typical school indoctrinates in the ideas current fifty years ago. Pseudo-patriotic pressure groups agitate to fix this indoctrination, a practice which tends to make closed minds amid change. But it does not follow that the proponent of newer things should indoctrinate for his measures. If we claim that we are right and therefore should indoctrinate, we are preparing the other side when it comes to power to make the like claim for itself. The proponent for better things must build a better social intelligence and trust that to act intelligently for us. This is the only just procedure for a school where citizens differ as to what is wise.

Will America allow teachers in building the open mind to discuss controversial issues? Within limits, yes. Just now, most people in this country do not believe in free speech, that is, not for those who would speak on the other side. They fail to see that intelligent democracy must stand for all by free speech. We, as educators, must help our citizens to see this, and win their consent to make their children intelligent students.

THE APPLICATION OF PSYCHOLOGICAL METHODS TO SAFETY EDUCATION

By SADIE SHELLOW

Consulting Psychologist, Milwaukee, Wisconsin

Condensed from *The Journal of Educational Sociology*, September, 1937, pp. 9-18.

Published by The Journal of Educational Sociology,
26 Washington Place, New York, N. Y.

Four thousand school children were killed by automobiles in the United States last year. Most of these deaths could have been prevented. The earliest attempts in education for safety were by the use of posters with such slogans as, *Drive Safely*! Safe driving depends upon building specific safe habits. If posters are to be used, they should tell specifically how to perform a particular act safely. Motion pictures have been utilized, but here, horror outweighs demonstrations of specific habits of safety. Drivers schools are a much nearer approach to effective education, but they reach only a small percentage of drivers.

If people could be educated to want to be considered safe drivers rather than clever ones, a real forward step would be taken in accident prevention. When automobiles first came into use, they were a luxury and were looked upon as a high-class toy. This toy psychology has carried over. The game is to see how fast one can go, or whether one can talk the officer out of a ticket. Social approval must be shifted from admiration for the driver who boasts of his narrow escapes to distinct disapproval of those who take chances.

The richest field for education is, of course, among the school children. The establishment of any habit must be based upon an emotional drive. On safety education much stress has been laid upon fear, but there must be as strong a drive to do the right thing as there is fear of doing the wrong thing.

One of the strongest emotions in children when they are members of a group is loyalty. If safety education can somehow be tied up to the spirit of loyalty, it will do much to instill attitudes that will promote safe behavior. Just as the boy can be encouraged to keep in good physical condition so that he may play on the football team and win glory for the school, so he can be interested in a contest among schools to go through the year without an accident to any child. A pennant presented by the police department, the safety commission, or the board of education, might serve as a reward for the efforts made by the children.

The rules of the contest might include accidents occurring anywhere in the community. The idea that a child attending, say the Bancroft High School, is a safe child on all thoroughfares could readily be impressed,

The training might include the making of posters illustrating proper ways of crossing a street and other common situations; talks by principals, police officers, safety experts; and weekly safety slogans. Each child could be stimulated to feel responsibility for every other child. For example, John would not permit Bill to cross in the middle of the street. The traffic officer could help when he saw a child about to cut in front of a car, by reminding him of the contest.

The Lane Technical High School in Chicago has recently offered a course in driving. If all young people could build safe habits at the beginning of their driving experience, re-education during adulthood would not be necessary. Industrial experience in the prevention of accidents has pointed to the rule that the way to prevent accidents is to teach the beginner safe habits as he learns to operate any machine, and to supervise him carefully until those habits become automatic. If along with the drivers course, ideals of carefulness, pride in skill, and respect for law are stressed, we will find our accident fatalities dropping in proportion to the young people so trained.

In some communities there has been established a Safety Week each year. There is a psychological value to intensive campaigns, and there are also disadvantages. The attention may be so relaxed afterwards that even more accidents occur. But if the whole year were devoted to a safety campaign, and each month featured a specific unsafe habit, improved habits could be formed. The schools might concentrate next month on careful crossing of streets, crossing with traffic, looking both ways, etc., until this one source of accidents would be uppermost in the consciousness of the members. This is the application of a psychological principle; that habits are built up by constant repetition, and that one cannot learn too many things at once.

The use of constructive suggestions, the tying up of the desire for safety with a fundamental motivation, the stress on the perfection of specific safety habits, and the constant hammering away at accident causes, together with methods of preventing them--all must be utilized in safety education.

News Notes

SCHOOLS OFFERING CORRESPONDENCE COURSES in Wisconsin are now required to submit copies of their courses and sales contracts to the State superintendent of public instruction, and file an indemnity bond ranging from \$2,000 to \$10,000.

DR. CHARLES H. JUDD, Chairman of the Department of Education, University of Chicago, has been granted leave of absence to July, 1938, to serve as Chairman of the Committee on Survey of Governmental Relations to Research of the National Resources Committee.

THE CURRENT VOGUE of telling stories with pictures is exemplified by the superintendent's latest annual report of the Detroit (Michigan) public schools. Brief explanatory texts give parents and other interested citizens an understanding of the work and methods carried out in the public schools.

FIFTY-SIX HIGH-SCHOOL BOYS AND GIRLS of Cleveland recently returned from a student exchange trip to Germany. The journey was made in the interest of universal peace. The group visited many places of interest in Germany, lived for a time in the homes of Berlin residents, and camped in woods outside of Berlin for three weeks.

ERASMUS HALL HIGH SCHOOL, in Brooklyn, celebrated its 150th anniversary on October 6, 7, and 8, with pageants portraying Erasmus, the Dutch scholar; the Rockaway sachem Eskemoppas selling the land to the Dutch burghers; the Academy days; the transfer of the Academy to the board of education; and modern scene of pupils at work in various groups.

HIGH SCHOOLS IN NORTH DAKOTA are beginning with the current session a new coöperative marketing course provided for in the last legislative session. The subject is an elective, yielding one-half unit of credit, to be offered in schools where there is a sufficient demand for it. A tentative course of study has been worked out by the State Department of Public Instruction for experimental use during this first year.

FOR SIX YEARS students in the Latin department of the Cleveland Heights (Ohio) High School have published *Hermes*, an English-Latin paper appearing twice a semester. Income from the sale of single copies at five cents each is the sole support of

Hermes, six hundred copies of which are printed for each edition. This journal was started by Miss Ida J. Bouck in 1931, and last year won the Hildesheim Vase awarded by the Ohio Classical Conference.

AGNES SAMUELSON, Superintendent of Public Instruction of Iowa, announces that the state will award a certificate for careful driving to school bus drivers during the school year of 1937-'38. Bus drivers eligible to receive the certificate will be the ones who have been employed by the school board throughout the year to transport pupils and who have operated the school bus in accordance with Iowa laws and the regulations of the board of education without accidents involving personal injury or property damage during the year.

A CLOSER TIE-UP between CCC camps and the public schools, particularly the secondary-school system, is expected to result from a survey recently completed by the United States Office of Education. Fifteen state school systems either grant elementary-school certificates or high-school diplomas to CCC boys on special examination, or authorize state and county schools to do so. Nine other states are arranging to accredit CCC educational work in the near future. Still others are providing job training in the camps and few give correspondence courses.

JUNIOR ACADEMIES OF SCIENCE have developed steadily during the past ten years and are now reported in several states, including: Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Minnesota, Pennsylvania, Texas, and West Virginia. The science clubs which had previously existed in many high schools were brought together by the state academies as junior academies. The meetings of the junior academies, held in connection with those of the adult groups, are managed almost entirely by high-school students.

DURING THE PAST FEW MONTHS the Department of Public Instruction of Pennsylvania has been studying the practices found in twenty-five cities and states regarding standards and policies of secondary-school graduation. A conference of principals and superintendents was held on the subject last August. Following a similar conference in October for deans and registrars of colleges and universities, the Secondary-School Division of the Department will complete a statement concerning new secondary-school requirements for graduation.

AMERICAN BOOK WEEK "Reading--the Magic Highway to Adventure" is to be the theme of exhibits and programs during

the 1937 American Book Week, November 14-20, which has been observed annually since 1919 by public libraries, bookshops, teachers' colleges, and other organizations which are concerned with child welfare. Information about programs and posters for the week may be secured by writing to Book Week Headquarters, National Association of Book Publishers, 347 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

EUGENE B. ELLIOTT, Michigan Superintendent of Public Instruction, has announced the appointment of G. Robert Koopman as Co-ordinating Director of Curriculum, and of John C. Parker as Director of the Michigan Study of Secondary-School Curriculum. Mr. Koopman has just completed a term as Associate Director of Curriculum. Mr. Parker, until recently Director of Research, Curriculum, and Guidance of the Fort Worth, Texas, public schools, will take charge of the newly inaugurated study of Michigan high schools. This study is financed partly by a grant from the General Education Board. Earl E. Mosier, Lansing, Michigan, has been appointed Curriculum Associate, and Miss Katherine Brook, Lansing, as Research Assistant in the Division of Curriculum.

INSTEAD OF THE TRADITIONAL commencement exercises with invitations, speeches, and parties, the twenty-seven members of the 1937 graduating class of the Herculaneum, Missouri, High School took a two-weeks' tour with all expenses paid. The Board of Education furnished two school busses with drivers and the thirty dollars in cash, which had been used formerly to pay a commencement speaker. A fund of \$450 to cover the balance of the expenses of the tour had been raised by the class during the school year. The only expense either to the student or to his family was ten dollars for personal incidental expenses. The students traveled approximately 2,400 miles. The itinerary included four days in Washington, D. C., several days along the coast of New Jersey, and two days in New York City.

EDUCATION NEWS is the title of a weekly newspaper for educators which was started October 1 at Minneapolis, Minnesota, under the editorship of Ray Blackwell, former assistant to the president of the University of Louisville, Kentucky. The new publication will report educational conventions, conferences, and meetings; new methods of teaching and administration; building activities; current contributions to educational literature; legislative acts and judicial decisions of interest to educators; educational broadcasting and motion picture news which concerns educators; resignations, appointments, and other personal news. Ed-

itorial office of *Educational News* is located at 420 Sexton Building, 529 South Seventh St., Minneapolis, Minnesota.

THE SECOND NATIONAL CONFERENCE on Educational Broadcasting will be held at the Drake Hotel, Chicago, November 29, 30, and December 1, 1937. The objectives of this second national conference are: (1) To provide a national forum where interests concerned with education by radio can come together to exchange ideas and experiences; (2) To examine and appraise the situation in American broadcasting as a background for the consideration of its present and future public service; (3) To examine and appraise the listener's interest in programs that come under the general classification of public service broadcasting; (4) To examine the present and potential resources of education through broadcasting; (5) To examine and appraise the interest of organized education in broadcasting; and (6) To bring to a large and influential audience the findings that may become available from studies and researches in the general field of educational broadcasting, particularly such studies and researches as may be conducted by the Federal Radio Education Committee.

A SCHOOL WITHIN A SCHOOL is a novel experiment launched at the beginning of the school year at Evanston, Illinois, Township High School under the direction of Francis L. Bacon, principal. It is called the *New School*, and comprises a special home-room division of one hundred thirty pupils selected as a representative cross-section of the entering freshman class. The *New School* is a coöperative project sponsored jointly by the Township High School and Northwestern University School of Education. The local school is offering the customary facilities, while the School of Education is contributing a Curriculum Director, who will be in charge of the instructional policies and organization, a number of instructors, and the services of several specialists on the University faculty. New ideas, methods, and materials will be tried out and evaluated in an effort to increase the horizons of educational opportunity for those who are especially interested, or to give appeal to those who might not respond with satisfaction to the traditionally known and the historically established.

GRANTS OF \$8,156,250 for the part-time employment of needy high school students during the academic year 1937-38 were recently announced by the National Youth Administration. This allotment is a reduction of \$2,918,750 from last year's budget. Special grants amounting to \$310,650, however, for additional young people in the ten Mid-Western states affected by the summer's drought have been authorized.

Since the inception of the program in 1935 the schools have been authorized to extend aid to a number equal to twelve per cent of their enrollments as of October, 1934. The base date now has been advanced to October, 1936, and the percentage reduced to ten. Average payments of six dollars a month to each secondary-school student is the limit permissible under the program. On this basis aid will be extended to 151,000 students, but in as much as the average monthly payment is reduced in most schools, it is expected that approximately 185,000 young people of secondary-school age will benefit from the program.

TWO NEW BOOKLETS have been released in the American Council on Education Series. These are *The Motion Picture in Education: Its Status and Its Needs* (pp. 32, 10c), a survey of the current problems and suggested approaches to their solution), and *Teaching with Motion Pictures A Handbook of Administrative Practices* (pp. 67, 40c,) by Edgar Dale and Lloyd Ramseyer of Ohio State University. The latter is intended for the teacher and administrator and provides concrete answers to the questions most frequently raised pertaining to motion pictures and other visual teaching materials.

Book Notices

Bacon, Francis L. and Kirkpatrick, James D., Editors. *Shakespeare's Most Popular Plays*. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company, 1937. Pp. 608.

These six plays for English classes were chosen on the basis of a survey of curricula and courses of study to make available those most acceptable for high-school usage. The plan of the book makes possible wide variety in classroom organization and use in acquainting the student with the scope and significance of Shakespeare's dramatic works.

Chapman, Paul W. *Occupational Guidance*. Atlanta: Turner E. Smith and Company, 1937. Pp. xiv+632. \$1.76.

In spite of profound changes in the economic and social order, the responsibility for selecting and preparing for an occupation still remains with the individual. The author has written this book to help those charged with guidance responsibilities to bring to young people "an understanding of the changing patterns of modern vocations."

Dakin, Dorothy. *Talks to Beginning Teachers of English*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1937. Pp. xii+478. \$2.40.

Miss Dakin has written this book as the result of many years of experience in dealing with the special problems of teaching English in a small high school and later in larger high schools, supervisory work, and college teaching.

Williamson, E. G. *Students and Occupations*. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1937. Pp. xxiv+437. \$2.50.

This book provides an antidote to the Horatio Alger concept in choosing a vocation. "Youth," he writes, "must be taught to approach the problem of choosing a vocation realistically by means of a guided and professional inventory of personal assets and liabilities and a frank appraisal of job requirements and opportunities."

Wesley, Edgar B. *Teaching the Social Studies*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1937. Pp. xviii+635. \$2.80.

The purpose of this volume is to synthesize the knowledge concerning the teaching of the social studies in the light of (1) the widespread interest in current affairs, (2) the increasing percentage of time assigned to the social studies, and (3) the findings of the Report of the Commission on the Social Studies. The book is divided into seven parts: the foundations of the social studies, history and status, making the curriculum, equipment, teaching and learning, some recognized methods, and measurement and evaluation.

Thomas, Frank W. and Lang, Albert R. *Principles of Modern Education*. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1937. Pp. 340. \$2.50.

This volume is intended to provide a text for the culminating education course in teacher training to furnish the student with a perspective or preview of the school work upon which he is soon to become engaged.

Engelhardt, Fred and Overn, Alfred V. *Secondary Education*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1937. Pp. xvi+620. \$2.75.

This book is intended primarily for students preparing for careers in any of the various phases of the secondary field. The authors have made an analysis of the historical and social factors affecting the development of the American secondary school, adding to it a summary of the best practices prevailing throughout the country.

Grinnell, J. Erle. *Interpreting the Public Schools*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1937. Pp. xii+360. \$2.75.

Because of the reductions in budgetary provision for education during the late depression a new principle, according to the author of this book, has evolved: "If our communities are to support a forwardlooking program of free public education, they must be told what the schools are doing for their children."

Grizzell, E. D. *American Secondary Education*. New York: Thomas Nelson and Sons, 1937. Pp. 312. \$2.00.

The author of this latest book in the field portrays secondary education as the "expanding effort of a democratic society to meet the educational needs of all its youth." The major function which the secondary school must assume is that of coördinating the efforts of a wide range of social agencies in the education of all the youth of the community.

An Introduction to Modern Education. Edited by Charles E. Skinner and R. Emerson Langfitt. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1937. Pp. xvi+491. \$2.80.

This introductory text has been written primarily to meet the needs of the relatively new field of the orientation or survey course in education, but it is directed to school administrators and others interested in the field as well. Each section is written by an expert in his particular field.

Norton, John K. and Norton, Margaret A. *Wealth, Children and Education*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. xx+100. \$2.00.

The authors have provided in this small but compact volume material relating to educational economics to support their contention that the support of public education is properly a function of the Federal Government.

OTHER BOOKS RECEIVED

- Basic Reference Books.* Prepared by Louis Shores for the American Library Association. Chicago: The Association, 1937. Pp. x+406. \$4.00. (Preliminary edition in paper covers, planographed.)
- Books About Jobs.* Prepared by Willard E. Parker. Published for the National Occupational Conference by the American Library Association. Chicago, 1936. Pp. xiv+402. \$3.00. (Preliminary edition.)
- Brah, Stanley M. *A Ten-Year Record of Apprentices Training.* Scranton, Pennsylvania: International Correspondence Schools, 1937. Pp. 20. (Paper.)
- Brink, William G. *Directing Study Activities in Secondary Schools.* Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Doran & Co., 1937. Pp. xiv+738. \$3.00.
- Casner, Mabel B. and Peattie, Roderick. *Exploring Geography.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1937. Pp. x+481. \$1.96.
- Chambers, M. M. *Youth-Serving Organizations.* Preliminary Report to the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education. Washington: The Council, 1937. Pp. x+327. (Planographed, Paper.)
- Chave, Ernest J. *Personality Development in Children.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937. Pp. xiv+354. \$2.50.
- Commins, W. D. *Principles of Educational Psychology.* New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1937. Pp. xiv+596. \$3.00.
- Cowardin, Samuel P. and More, Paul Elmer. *The Study of English Literature.* New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1936. Pp. x+405. \$1.60.
- Fifth Yearbook of School Law.* Edited by M. M. Chambers. Washington: American Council on Education, 1937. Pp. 144. \$1.00. (Paper.)
- Hendrick, Burton J. *Bulwark of the Republic.* Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1937. Pp. xxviii+467. \$3.50.
- Hosford, Frances Juliette. *Father Shipherd's Magna Charta.* Boston: Marshall Jones Company, 1937. Pp. xii+180. \$1.50.
- The Improvement of Education.* Fifteenth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association. Washington: The Association, 1937. Pp. 328. \$2.00.
- Jaffe, Bernard. *New World of Chemistry.* New York: Silver, Burdett and Company, 1937. Pp. xii+566+xxx. \$1.35 net.
- Keohane, Robert E., Keohane, Mary P., and McGoldrick, Joseph D. *Government in Action.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1937. Pp. xvi+845. \$1.84.
- The New International Year Book, 1936.* Edited by Frank H. Vizetelly. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Company, 1937. Pp. xiv+802.
- Pelsma, John R. *Essentials of Debate.* New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1937. Pp. x+168. \$1.00.
- Reeder, Ward G. *An Introduction to Public-School Relations.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937. Pp. xiv+260. \$2.25.
- Research Memorandum on Education in the Depression.* Prepared by the Educational Policies Commission under the Direction of the Committee on Studies of Social Aspects of the Depression Bulletin No. 28. New York: Social Science Research Council, 1937. Pp. xi+173. \$1.00. *Bibliography on Education in the Depression.* Washington: The National Education Association, 1937. Pp. 118. \$.50. Both in paper covers.
- Survey of Journalism.* Edited by George F. Mott. New York: Barnes & Noble, Inc., 1937. Pp. xxiv+376. \$2.00.
- Symonds, Percival M. *Education and the Psychology of Thinking.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1936. Pp. xii+306. \$2.50.
- The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy.* Report of the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the Department of Superintendence. Washington: The Association, 1937. Pp. xi+129. \$.50.

STUDENT LIFE

The Department is issuing a publication called *Student Life*, a monthly illustrated magazine about activities in the secondary school written for students, much of it by students. It is the official organ of the National Honor Society and of the National Association of Student Officers. It contains interesting and instructive articles about various phases of extra-curriculum activities, such as student forums, dramatics, music, art, and student government, with special features in the field of photography, contests, classics, and humor.

SUBSCRIPTION PRICES

1. Single subscription price, \$1.00 a year to persons not connected with the Department of Secondary-School Principals, the National Association of Student Officers, or the National Honor Society.
2. In clubs of three or more, all mailed to the same address, 50 cents per year.
3. Special price to members of the Department, to faculty sponsors of the National Honor Society and of the National Association of Student Officers, single subscription, 50 cents per year.
4. Membership fee in National Association of Student Officers of \$1.50 includes three subscriptions mailed to the same address.

ANNUAL CONVENTION

February, 1938

The annual convention of the Department of Secondary-School Principals will be held at Atlantic City, New Jersey, from February 26 to March 2, 1938. Hotel Traymore will be the Department Headquarters.

DIRIRECTORY NUMBER

The December issue of the BULLETIN will be the annual directory number. If there has been a change in your position or address since the issue of the Directory of last year, or if there is any other correction of the entry under your name to be made, please communicate with the Executive Secretary at once, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago.

